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LONGMANS'

GEOGRAPHICAL READING BOOKS

THE
BRITISH
COLONIES
AND
DEPENDENCIES



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THE BRITISH COLONIES
AND DEPENDENCIES

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EDITED BY F. W. RUDLER, F.G.S.

THE BRITISH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES



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PREFACE.

THE object of the series of books, of which this is the fifth, is to supply a connected course in Geography to be taken by scholars in successive years; hence the books are written in different styles, each suited to the age of the scholars for whom it is intended. The series is especially adapted for use in Public Elementary Schools, and the order in which the subjects follow one another strictly conforms to the syllabus of instruction in Geography of the Liverpool School Board. This order differs from that laid down in the Education Code, but a deviation of this kind, if approved by H.M. Inspector for the district, is permitted under the rules of the Department, as explained in the introductory paragraph to Geography in Schedule II. of the Code of 1884. The introductory book of the series, by Mr. W. J. STEWART, B.A., is a handbook for teachers, and the books which follow it are intended for use as reading-books in the successive standards from the second to the seventh.

The first, or introductory book, contains suggestions to teachers as to the means by which young scholars may be taught the significance of maps, and be otherwise prepared for the study of geography.

The second book is intended to awaken the interest of the scholars in the wonderful varieties of animal life in the world, and thus prepare them for the Geography of its various parts. The book describes several animals, so selected as to illustrate the relation of their habits to the character of the countries they respectively inhabit, and also the broadest and most obvious distinctions of animal life, such, for instance, as those between herbivorous, carnivorous, and omnivorous animals. The use of technical words is restricted to a very few, which are fully explained, and with which it is desirable that the scholars shall be made acquainted at the commencement of the course.

In the third book, by Mr. W. J. STEWART, B.A., some of the most important of those facts of Physical Geography which the scholars can observe in their daily life are explained, such as the alternation of day and night and of changes in the weather. This book has already been taught to children in Standard III. in the Liverpool Board Schools with satisfactory results, as tested by the examinations of H.M. Inspectors.

The fourth book is devoted to a description of the **BRITISH ISLANDS**, by the late Mr. THOMAS PARRY.

The **BRITISH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES** are dealt with in the fifth book of the series. This book relates in the earlier lessons to certain physical truths, considered to be too difficult for younger scholars, such as the causes of the different seasons and the local causes which vary climate. These lessons are followed and illustrated by a description of the British possessions.

The sixth book will treat of the **COUNTRIES OF EUROPE AND AMERICA**, and the seventh those of **ASIA AND AFRICA**, with the exception, in each case, of the British possessions on these continents.

To each of the later books is added an appendix, containing information which it is believed that scholars in Public Elementary Schools will not be expected to possess, unless they are presented for examination not only in these books as reading lessons, but also in Geography as a separate subject.

The appendix to the book on the United Kingdom further contains many particulars as to the mountains, towns, and other details of the various counties. The writer did not contemplate that all these particulars would be taught to every scholar, but that a child would learn only those relating to his own neighbourhood or county.

In the appendix to each division of the globe there will also be found a list of the most common or remarkable animals occurring within it. On these appendixes, a teacher interested in natural history, and with time to spare, may enlarge without extending the range of knowledge in which the scholars will necessarily be liable to official examination.

Various writers have assisted in the preparation of these books, but the whole course is in harmony with one consistent design, and is edited by Mr. F. W. Rudler, Curator of the Museum of Practical Geology.

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Note.—In order to bring into prominence the most important geographical features, the political divisions and the chief towns of the several countries, it has been necessary to omit the hills and low mountain ranges, while the higher chains are indicated by black lines varying in breadth according to the respective heights of the mountains. As, however, mountain chains seldom rise abruptly from a low plain the reader may generally assume that the land near to a high mountain range gradually descends to the plains, and that land intermediate between two neighbouring chains is more or less elevated.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.



LESSON I.

INTRODUCTORY LESSON.

THE British Empire is the largest in the world. It includes, beside the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, many other countries, all of which Great extent of the Empire. are under Governors chosen by the Queen, and protected by her army and navy from the attacks of foreign enemies. These countries are called *British Possessions*.

It was not until the sixteenth century that Great Britain began to extend her dominions. On the accession of James I., the English crown ruled only over England, Ireland, Scotland, and the neighbouring islands. Its subjects then numbered about five millions of people. At the present time the British Empire is estimated to have a total area of nine million square miles, which is equal to rather more than twice that of Europe, and seventy-four times that of the United Kingdom. Its population is reckoned to exceed 300 millions, or rather more than that of all Europe, and to be eight and one-half times as numerous as that of our own islands.

Some parts of the Empire are far distant from England. Indeed, no other empire, either in ancient or modern times, has ever spread so widely over the face of the earth, or embraced within its limits so many varieties of climate.

For instance, some of the British possessions lie near to the equator. Here the weather is hot throughout the year; the days and nights vary but little in length; and the inhabitants live in a perpetual summer. Very unlike these sunny realms are the possessions in the far north. In these the ground is frozen hard and covered with snow for many months in the year. During midwinter the sun never gives its cheering light for more than one or two hours, but during the short summer the days are very long, and in the height of it the daylight never ceases.

Again, many of the British possessions lie between the equatorial and the arctic regions, and therefore possess a climate very closely resembling that of our own island.

The varieties in the appearance, in the character, and in the manners of the people in different parts of our widespread dominions are quite as remarkable as the differences of climate in the lands which they inhabit.

As we proceed with the description of the Empire, we shall also perceive that each country generally attracts to itself the kind of people best fitted to do well in it and to make the most of its advantages. Thus in the countries which have a climate at all like our own, the people of British birth, or descent, are fast increasing in number. In

many cases they are gradually supplanting the natives whose forefathers dwelt in the land for ages before it passed under British rule. On the other hand, in those of our possessions where the climate is very hot all the year round, there are but few of our countrymen, or of any other Europeans, and the natives continue to form the great majority of the people.

The cause of this difference between our various possessions is a very simple one. In the cooler countries our countrymen enjoy as good health as if they lived in England; whereas in the hotter lands they cannot bear the climate for any length of time without becoming sickly. Accordingly it depends chiefly on the kind of climate which prevails in each of the British possessions, whether it becomes in time part of the great family circle of the Empire, or remains the abode of native races specially fitted to live there, and among whom our people will always dwell as strangers.

In the course of later lessons we shall learn many more facts which will show how much the peculiar climate of each country has to do with the distinguishing characteristics of its people. What has already been said is, however, sufficient to prove that a knowledge of the wonderful differences in the various climates of the world will greatly help us to understand the varieties of human life existing in that vast Empire of which our own island forms only a very small part.

LESSON II.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE LIGHT AND HEAT OF THE SUN.

THE last lesson drew our attention to the influence of climate on the general character of a country and of its people. Let us now consider the causes which produce the differences between the various climates of the world.

We already know that the sun is the chief source from which the earth derives its light and heat. We also know that the amount of light and heat it receives from the sun varies much in different parts of the earth and at different seasons of the year. The object of this and of the following lesson is to show how these variations take place.

The facts we must first learn are that the amount of heat carried to any part of the earth by the sun's rays depends partly on the direction in which they strike it, and partly on the length of time during which they shine upon it.

Causes of variation in the amount of heat given to the earth by the sun.

Direct rays carry most heat to the earth.

The figure on the opposite page will help us to understand the first of these truths.

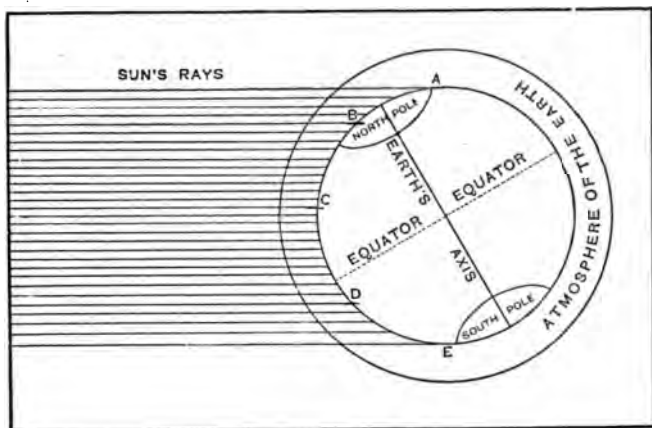
This figure is intended to show how the round shape of the earth causes portions of its surface to be presented in different directions to the rays of the sun. It will also help us to understand how such a fact influences the amount of heat carried by the rays to the different parts of the earth. For this purpose

the figure represents, by means of parallel lines, the rays of the sun shining upon one side of the earth.

When this figure is examined we shall notice the following facts :—

(1) That the rays of the sun reach the earth in directions parallel to one another.

(2) That some rays fall on a part of the earth



directly facing the sun, as near c ; these are called *direct*, or *vertical*, or *perpendicular* rays.

(3) That all other rays reaching the earth fall on parts which curve more or less away from the part marked c. These are said to fall obliquely, or slantingly, on the earth's surface, and are, therefore, called *oblique* rays.

(4) We shall further notice that the earth is represented as surrounded to a certain height above its surface by the *atmosphere*. Now this air, however

dry it may seem, always contains vapour of water, especially in the part near to the earth's surface. One of the properties of this vapour is to absorb heat. Consequently as the sun's rays pass through the air they lose some of their heating power, even when the sky is clear; and in cloudy weather they lose so much that comparatively little heat reaches the earth.

Now, as the figure shows, the oblique rays have to travel a greater distance through the atmosphere than the direct or vertical rays travel. Observe, for instance, that the rays which strike the earth obliquely between the letters A and B and D and E pass through a much greater space of air than do the more direct rays which fall upon it between the letters B and C and C and D. It is, therefore, clear that the direct rays must lose less of their heating power before reaching the earth's surface than the oblique rays do, and must consequently warm it more effectually.

(5) We may observe another and far more important difference between the vertical and oblique rays. The curved line between A and E represents part of the rounded surface of the earth. It is divided by the letters B, C, D into four equal parts. Now, if we count the rays falling upon each of these separate parts, we shall see that, though all these rays are equally close together, they do not fall in equal numbers on equal spaces of the earth's surface. The parts of the earth which receive the rays obliquely get fewer of them and consequently less heat than is received by those parts of the earth which receive them directly. For instance, there are fewer rays falling on the earth's surface between A and B and D and E, where

it slants away from the sun, than in the same space between B and C and C and D, where it faces the sun more directly.

We can now understand why the direct rays of the sun carry more heat than the oblique rays to the earth's surface. It is to some extent because the former lose comparatively less of their heat on their way through the atmosphere, but chiefly because wherever the rays fall directly on the surface, they fall in greater number than on equal areas elsewhere.

We have also stated that the amount of heat received from the sun's rays depends greatly on the length of the days. This is a fact that our own experience may teach us. We know that so long as the sun shines upon us we continue to receive heat from it. In the same way, as long as the sun shines on any part of the earth, so long does that part continue to receive heat. We must also remember that the longer the days are, the shorter must be the nights, during which the earth is losing part of its heat.

We have now explained the chief conditions on which the heating power of the sun's rays depends. It remains for us to explain how their directness, and the duration of the sunshine, are varied in different places and at different seasons of the year by the motions of the earth.

LESSON III.

**THE EARTH'S MOTIONS, AND THEIR INFLUENCE
ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUN'S LIGHT
AND HEAT.**

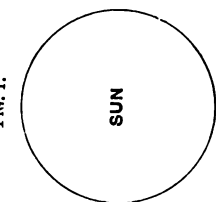
ALTHOUGH the earth appears to us to be constantly at rest, it has in reality two distinct motions.

First, the earth is always spinning round on its axis somewhat like a top. By this motion, known as the *rotation* of the earth, its various parts are successively turned to and from the sun, and the alternation between day and night is thus caused.

Secondly, while the earth is always spinning on its axis, it is also travelling at an enormous speed round the sun. Its path is almost circular, and is called its *orbit*. Fast as the earth flies on its way, the length of its orbit is so great that a whole year is required to complete one journey. This motion of the earth is called its *revolution*. It is one of the two causes that determine the change of the seasons. The other cause is the constant inclination, or leaning, of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit. The figure marked 'Fig. 1,' on the opposite page, will help us to understand the effect of these two causes.

In this figure the earth is represented at two opposite stages of its journey round the sun. We must notice that at neither of these stages is the earth's axis perpendicular to its orbit; on the contrary, it inclines

FIG. 1.



*A to C Equator
B to D Axis*

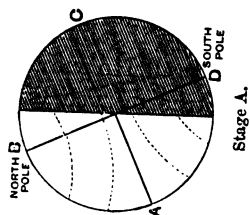
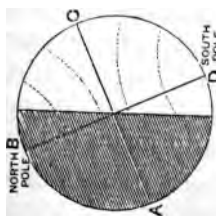
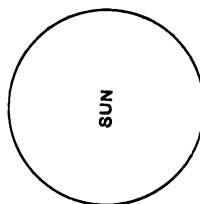
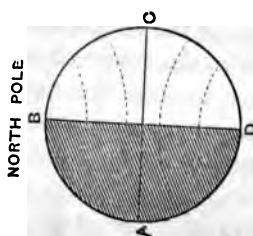


FIG. 2.



*A to C - Equator
B to D - Axis*



to the orbit at both stages, and to the same extent and in the same direction. Consequently the lines representing the earth's axis are strictly parallel to one another at both stages; and the same is true of such lines at whatever part of the orbit the earth may be. The axis always points the same way; its inclination never alters.

It is very difficult to explain by written descriptions, or even by drawings, the combined effects which the two causes referred to above have upon the distribution of the sun's light and heat. They may, however, be made plain by a very simple method. Take a ball of worsted and run a knitting needle through its centre to represent the earth's axis, leaving the two ends of the needle to project and serve as handles by which the ball may be made to turn round. Then place a globe or other round object upon a table, or stool, to represent the sun. Let a person hold the ball of worsted opposite the sun exactly in the same position as the earth is shown to be at stage A in the figure, and let another person hold a second knitting needle exactly in the same position as the earth's axis is represented to be at stage B. When these preparations are completed, let the person holding the worsted ball move it in a circular course round the object representing the sun, always keeping the supposed earth at the same height from the floor as the supposed sun is.¹ The utmost care must be taken to keep the earth's axis always pointing in the same way, and therefore parallel to the knitting-needle opposite, the only use of which is to guide the eye in

¹ The person moving the ball representing the earth must proceed to the left round its supposed orbit.

keeping the earth's axis at the same inclination throughout its journey. As the supposed earth is thus slowly moved round the object representing the sun, it will become clear that the effect of the constant inclination of the earth's axis must be to gradually vary the direction in which the rays of the sun fall on the different parts of the earth, and the length of time during which they daily reach the different parts of its surface.

Thus, at stage A in the figure, the northern hemisphere is represented as slanting more towards the sun, and the southern hemisphere as slanting more away from it, than at any other part of the earth's orbit. When the earth is in this position, the northern hemisphere is in the midst of its summer season, and the southern hemisphere in the midst of its winter season. As the earth proceeds on its course, the northern hemisphere slants less and less towards the sun, and the southern hemisphere less and less from it. When the earth has completed one-fourth of its annual course, neither hemisphere slants more to the sun than the other, and both hemispheres receive daily an equal quantity of sunshine. At this stage of the earth's course the northern hemisphere is in the midst of the autumnal season, and the southern one in the midst of the spring season. When the earth reaches stage B, as shown by the figure, the positions in relation to the sun which the two hemispheres respectively occupied at stage A are reversed; the southern one now slants towards the sun, and the northern one away from it. The northern hemisphere is then in the midst of winter, and the southern hemisphere in the midst of summer.

After the earth passes this stage of its journey, the northern hemisphere begins to slant less and less away from the sun, and the southern less and less towards it; and when the earth has completed three-fourths of its yearly journey, both hemispheres are again receiving equal quantities of sunshine. We and all the other inhabitants of the northern hemisphere are then enjoying the gladness of spring while the southern hemisphere is in the midst of autumn.

We may perhaps be able more thoroughly to understand this subject if we consider what would happen if the earth's axis, instead of inclining to its orbit, was perpendicular to it, as shown in the figure marked 'Fig. 2' on page 9.

We shall see at once that the revolution of the earth would bring about no changes of the seasons. Neither hemisphere would at any time slant more than the other towards or from the sun. Throughout the whole year both hemispheres would in the daytime receive an equal and unchangeable quantity of the sun's heat and light, and the days would always be of the same length. Everywhere the length of the days would be the same as they are now in the middle of spring and of autumn. The equatorial regions would, as at present, enjoy continuous summer, but in all other regions of the earth the temperature would all the year round be much the same as it is at present in the spring and autumn seasons.

In conclusion, we must point out that, as England lies far north of the equator, we never receive the rays of the sun vertically, and consequently the sun always appears more or less to the south of us. On the other

hand, in the regions about the equator the inhabitants sometimes have the sun directly overhead; and in our summer they see it to the north of them, while in our winter they see it in the south.

LESSON IV.

THE BOUNDARIES AND CLIMATES OF THE FIVE ZONES.

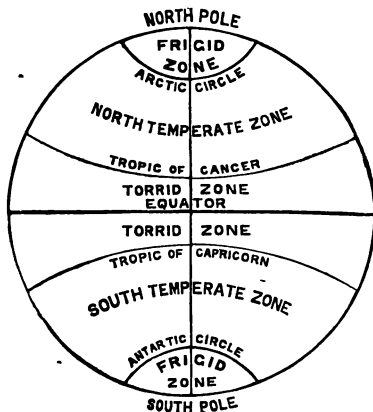
WHEN we examine a globe representing the earth we find that it is encircled by four dotted lines which divide it into five great regions. These divisions are called the *Zones*, the word zone meaning a belt or girdle.

The middle belt, which includes the equator, is called the *Torrid Zone*, these words meaning the hot belt; the two bordering zones are called the *Temperate Zones*, because they are not subject to great extremes of heat or cold; while the two zones, each of which surrounds one of the poles, are called the *Frigid Zones*, because they are the coldest of all the belts.

From what has been said in previous lessons we shall at once perceive that these terms must correctly describe the general character of the climates of each of the five zones. We shall now explain the precise facts in accordance with which the boundaries of the zones have been defined.

In the first place we see on the globe that each of

the lines which bound the Torrid Zone is $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees distant from the equator. The northern one is called the *Tropic of Cancer*, and the southern one the *Tropic of Capricorn*. These lines are placed so as to define the northern and southern boundaries of that part of the earth which alone at any time of the year receives the rays of the sun quite vertically. In other words, it is only in this zone that the inhabitants ever see the



ZONES OF THE EARTH.

sun directly over their heads. And even in this zone they only see the midday sun exactly overhead twice in the year. At our midsummer the sun is vertical at noon over the Tropic of Cancer, or northern limit of the Torrid Zone; and at our midwinter it is vertical at noon over the Tropic of Capricorn, or southern boundary of the great Torrid Belt. The rays of the sun, however, fall so nearly vertically upon all parts of the Torrid Zone

throughout the year that the variation in temperature as the seasons follow one another are very slight.

We may here add that the parts of the earth included in the Torrid Zone are often spoken of as the *Tropical Regions*, and the parts which border it as the *Subtropical Regions*, because they are almost as warm as the tropical ones.

And now we come to the two lines which separate the Frigid from the Temperate Zones. Each of these lines is about $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees distant from its nearest pole, the northern one being termed the *Arctic Circle*, and the southern the *Antarctic Circle*. As we may readily see there is a greater difference between the inclination of the rays in summer and in winter in the Frigid Zones than in any other parts of the earth.

Consequently, these are the zones in which the duration of the sunshine varies at different seasons of the year more than in any of the others. They include the only parts of the earth which are not subject, throughout the whole year, to change of day and night with every rotation of the earth, that is to say, once in every twenty-four hours.¹

But we must not suppose that a traveller from the equator towards one of the poles would find the changes of climate or in the length of the days more striking just when he was passing these boundaries than on the other parts of his journey.

The surface of the earth is so immense that the differences of climate caused by distance from the equator are very gradual. We can hardly feel the change of

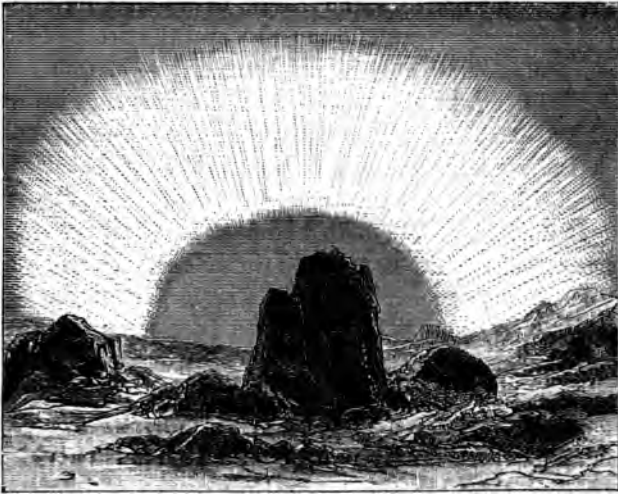
¹ All these truths should be illustrated by the aid of the experiment with a ball of worsted referred to in Lesson III.

temperature from this cause only, between any two places, unless their latitudes are separated by a distance of at least a hundred miles. In fact, the variations of climate which follow from other causes to be explained in the next lesson are often much more striking in the course of a short journey than those caused by the revolution of the earth.

The variations in the length of the days in different latitudes are much more readily perceived than the variations of temperature. And we must add, that as a traveller journeys from the equator towards either pole, he not only notices the increasing length of the days, but also the increasing duration of the *twilight*. The twilight is the faint light diffused through the atmosphere when the sun is only a little below the horizon shortly after sunset and before sunrise; and its extraordinary prolongation in the arctic and antarctic regions strangely contrasts with its short duration in the tropical regions.

Let us picture to ourselves a traveller journeying in the month of June from London, by way of Scotland, to the most northern cape in Norway. On leaving home he would only be able to read a book without candle-light up to about nine o'clock in the evening, but in the north of Scotland he would be able to do so up to within about an hour of midnight. When he reached about 63° of latitude in Norway he would enter villages at midnight where, though the sun had disappeared for a short time, the twilight would be as bright as the light in the middle of a cloudy day in England; and it would appear strange to him to find not a living creature stirring, the inn closed, and all the inhabitants

fast asleep. As he journeyed onward and approached the Arctic Circle, the sun would only disappear at midnight below the horizon for a few minutes. If he actually reached this boundary at midsummer, he would see the sun continuously shining through the whole night; and the nearer he approached to the pole at this



AURORA BOREALIS, OR NORTHERN LIGHT, IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS.

season, the longer would be the time during which the sun would never set.

On the borders of the Arctic regions the spring and autumn seasons last only two or three weeks, and the summer season about six weeks. The summer season is, however, very warm, as the greater duration of the sunshine compensates for the less directness of

the sun's rays. These are truly busy seasons for the inhabitants; even Nature seems to feel the necessity of making the most of her time. Vegetation grows apace, and crops of barley are sown and reaped within the short space of two months.

But with the flight of summer, how great is the change! Some daring explorers have spent the whole winter so far north of the Arctic Circle that for many weeks they never saw the sun rise, and the dreary darkness was relieved only by an hour or two of dim twilight at noon, by the radiance of the heavenly bodies, and by the splendid flashing light of the *aurora borealis*—a light which resembles sheet-lightning, but is far more brilliant.

It may be well here to add that we shall not again have to refer to the Southern Frigid Zone. Surrounded by ice-fields, and enveloped for a large part of the year in fog, the Antarctic lands have been very little explored. They are uninhabited by man, and possess only the scantiest kinds of vegetation and the lowest forms of animal life. We may, therefore, dismiss from our thoughts these dreary regions, of which it is enough to say that they are the everlasting scenes of loneliness and desolation.

LESSON V.

LOCAL CAUSES WHICH MODIFY CLIMATE.

FOREMOST among the causes which influence the climate of a country is its distance from the equator. The effect of this has been already explained. But besides this cause there are others which may render the climate of two separate localities very different although they may both be in the same latitude. These are spoken of as *local causes*.

Height
above the
sea.

One of the most important of local causes is the height of the ground above the level of the sea.

Any person who lives in a mountainous country must notice that, except when the sun is shining brightly, the high plains are cooler than the low ones, and especially that snow is seen more frequently on the mountain tops than elsewhere.

In order to explain these facts we must again refer to the distribution of the sun's rays. Although the rays of the sun lose some of their warmth on their way to the earth, much the greatest part of their heat is absorbed by the earth's surface, which it penetrates to a depth of several feet on land and to a much greater depth on water. From the earth's surface this heat is radiated, that is to say, it passes gradually into the atmosphere, this radiation going on throughout the night as well as the day. Thus most of the heat received by the air is radiated from the earth, and between sunset

and sunrise, broadly speaking, the earth is the only source of heat to the atmosphere.

Now, for reasons stated in an earlier book in this series, the lower parts of the atmosphere are more dense and also more moist than the higher parts. Here we must add that heat radiates less freely through dense moist air than through air which is lighter and drier. It therefore follows that air near to low-lying land retains more heat than the lighter and drier air above high land. Hence the climate of the former is the warmer of the two.

We may observe from familiar experience the difference between slow and quick radiation. Our bodies being warm radiate heat, but when we are covered with a thick blanket, this radiation is impeded; the blanket retards the passage of the heat from our bodies into the outer air of the room in which we sleep, and therefore our bed gets very warm. On the other hand, if we lie under only a thin sheet, through which the heat escapes freely, our bed remains much cooler. We may therefore compare the dense moist lower air of the atmosphere to the thick blanket, and the higher air to the thin sheet.

It is also to be borne in mind that in the case of mountains, especially if their sides be steep, the surface from which heat is radiated is very large in proportion to the solar rays which fall upon it. In other words, there are many directions in which the heat escapes to the sky. Consequently the top of a mountain is always cooler than that of a neighbouring table-land of the same height.

The influence of the height of the land on climate

is most forcibly illustrated in the Torrid Zone. For instance, the beautiful and flourishing city of Quito lies in a valley in South America, close to the equator. Nevertheless it is never subject to extreme heat, as it stands at the great elevation of 9,500 feet. On the other hand, it is protected from extreme cold by its tropical situation, and the inhabitants thus enjoy the delights of eternal spring. Still more remarkable is it to find that some very high mountains in the hottest parts of the Torrid Zone are capped throughout the year by ice and snow. This is the case with several giants of the Andes near Quito.

The rainfall of a country has also much to do with its climate. As heat passes to and from the earth more readily through dry than through moist
Rainfall. air, we can well understand that changes of temperature must be great and sudden in those regions of the earth where little or no rain falls. Here of course during the daytime the earth receives the sun's heat very freely, while after sunset it passes as rapidly into space.

Moreover, the vegetation of a country influences its climate to a greater or less extent. Plants suffer less
Vegetation. variation of temperature than the ground does, and thus they moderate changes of temperature between day and night, between winter and summer. They also tend to produce a moist atmosphere, and to increase the rainfall, which, as before explained, prevents a large gain of heat in the air during the day, and a still larger loss of it during the night.

In the driest parts of the vast North African Desert, where years pass without a drop of rain, and where

there is no vegetation, the sudden changes of temperature are truly surprising. In these dread regions at

Extremes of
heat and
cold in dry,
barren
deserts.

mid-day the ground would burn any one who touched it, and the wind would scorch the skin of any person's body which might be exposed to it. But, strange to say, a few hours after sunset it is sometimes cold enough to freeze water.

Another cause of the first importance which affects the climate of many regions of the earth is their position with regard to the sea.

The temperature of the sea varies much less than that of the land, and from this fact it follows that during the day it is the cooler of the two, and during the night the warmer. In winter and summer, too, like differences are observable.

From this fact it follows that winds blowing over the sea temper the climate of any heated region of the earth which they reach.

For example, the tropical regions of South America are much cooler than the tropical regions of Africa. One reason of this difference is that the former are exposed to the cool breezes which pass over them from the Atlantic Ocean, while the latter are largely cut off from all sea breezes by the mountain ranges which lie near to the coast.

The influence of the sea on climate is especially seen in some parts of the world, the shores of which are washed by great ocean currents. There are some very cold streams flowing from the Arctic regions towards the Torrid Zone, while other very warm currents flow from the Torrid Zone towards the Polar regions. The cold streams of course tend to chill the

Hot and
cold ocean
currents.

air of the lands they pass, while the warm ones have the opposite effect.

Thus, for example, the great current known as the *Gulf Stream*, which flows in a north-easterly direction from the Gulf of Mexico, strikes the north-western coast of Great Britain, and, as we know, raises the temperature of that coast many degrees. But its influence is even more striking in the Faroe Islands, which are several hundred miles north of Scotland. High as is their latitude, snow hardly ever remains there for more than a few days, even on the summits of the highest hills.

From what we have read in this and the preceding lessons we now know that in order to find out
Summary. what the climate of any country is like, we must learn—

- (1) Its latitude, or distance from the equator.
 - (2) Its height above the level of the sea.
 - (3) Whether it has abundant or scanty rainfall.
 - (4) Whether it is covered by abundant or by very scanty vegetation.
 - (5) Whether it lies near to or far from the sea ; and, if it lies near the sea, whether it is washed by any hot or by any cold ocean current.
 - (6) The character and direction of the prevailing winds.
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LESSON VI.

**INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE AND OTHER CAUSES
ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF VEGETABLE LIFE.**

AMONG the many wonders of the world we live in, one of the most striking is the enormous number and variety of the different plants which grow upon it. Some of them are so tiny that we can see them only through a microscope, while others are so large that we must stand at a considerable distance from them in order to appreciate their size. In Siberia there are mosses not an inch high ; on the other hand, in North America the 'mammoth trees' reach a height of more than 300 feet; and in Australia there are even higher trees, some of which are six times as tall as one of our large oaks.

The object of this lesson is to explain the reason why the vegetation of the different parts of the earth varies so greatly.

The circumstances under which plants thrive best, are a great deal of sunshine, plenty of water, and a rich soil. When a country possesses all these advantages its vegetation is always varied and luxuriant ; if it lacks any of them, its vegetation is sure to be more or less scanty and stunted.

Now, as we have already seen, the Torrid Zone receives more of the sun's heat than any of the others, and in many parts of it the rainfall is very great.

In tropical regions also the soil is often extremely rich. One of the chief reasons for this fertility is that the Torrid Zone is thinly peopled, and mainly with

barbarous races, so that the vegetation remains undisturbed. Thus, wherever there are great forests the trees continue to grow larger and larger, and on their death the soil becomes enriched by their decay, so that it supports with luxuriance the life of new plants in their stead. But in countries where the inhabitants are numerous and civilised, the trees are cut down for firewood or for timber with which to build. The spaces thus cleared are then planted with corn or other crops, and these soon exhaust the fertility of the soil.

Vegetation
most luxu-
riant in the
Torrid Zone.

Picture to yourselves a forest extending for miles and miles along the banks of a great river like the Amazon in South America. This forest does not resemble the sombre woods to which we are accustomed, and which are composed for the most part of trees of the same nature and colouring. A tropical forest is quite different. Here the eye is struck at once by the variety and luxuriance of the vegetation, and the brilliant colouring of its leaves and flowers. The shrubs and underwood are so thick in many places that it is impossible for any human being to wander through them; and all this dense foliage is knotted tightly together by graceful brightly coloured creepers.

Above rise the straight stems and huge dark green leaves of the different palms which are some of the most characteristic trees of the tropical regions. When these beautiful giants of the forest fall, broken down by old age, you may wonder what becomes of them. First the brilliant creepers twine about them, making a many-coloured shroud; then the dead trees sink into the mass of rotting underwood which already covered the ground;

and lastly they too decay and enrich the soil. Or perhaps, if they have stood upon the banks of a river, they



TROPICAL VEGETATION.

are swept away by the eager current to form part of a
floating pile of driftwood at its mouth.

As we proceed from the Torrid Zone either northwards or southwards, the vegetation becomes less and less luxuriant, until, as we approach either of the Frigid Zones, it is quite scanty and stunted.

The vegetation of the Arctic regions offers indeed a striking contrast to that of the Torrid Zone. Even the forests of hardy pine trees, so common in the north, have disappeared. A few shrubs and plants may be seen, these being so formed as to grow up, blossom, and fruit during the short summer; while in the long winter which follows, they are either protected from the cold by a thick coating of snow, or if exposed to the air are frozen up. But in the extreme north even these hardy plants are sought in vain, and a few tiny lichens and mosses are the only signs of vegetable life. The sun's rays in this region are so weak that they cannot give much strength to the vegetation, and the plants are in some cases very minute.

The chief peculiarity, therefore, of Arctic vegetation is its stunted growth.

Vegetation, like climate, is influenced by elevation. This we can readily understand, because, as we have already seen, vegetation depends chiefly upon climate; consequently if climate is influenced by elevation, so also will vegetation be.

Thus the same changes may be discovered in the vegetation of a high mountain in passing from its base to its summit, as is observed in proceeding from the equator to the poles. Some of the high peaks of the Andes in South America illustrate this variety of vegetable life in a marked manner. At the foot of such a mountain we find luxuriant tropical vegetation, whilst

towards its snowy summit are plants resembling those found in the Arctic regions.

LESSON VII.

MANKIND IN THE VARIOUS ZONES.

WE have now to inquire which of the zones has proved most favourable to the progress of civilisation, and the welfare of its inhabitants.

On this point there can be no doubt. With very few exceptions the most vigorous and intelligent races have, both in ancient and later times, dwelt in the Northern Temperate Zone. Wherever we read of races which have founded great and enduring kingdoms, or of the wisest men who have ever lived, we shall find that their abode was in this zone.

The leading nations of their day have always been remarkable for their scientific and other discoveries ; and the history of all the most wonderful and useful of these discoveries will readily illustrate what has been said of the wisdom and intelligence of the inhabitants of the Northern Temperate Zone. It will show that inventions and discoveries were not limited to a few parts of this zone, but were made in widely separated regions extending even from China to our own land and to America.

The alphabet and the art of writing were first discovered, many centuries before the birth of Christ, by

the Phœnicians and Egyptians, both of them maritime nations of the Northern Temperate Zone. These arts are the most valuable and wonderful of all the fruits of man's ingenuity, for by their means alone can knowledge be correctly handed down from one generation to another.

The method of printing by blocks was invented in the sixth century in China, a country which is situated almost wholly in this zone. In the eleventh century the use of moveable type, by which the labour and cost of printing were very much lessened, was discovered by a Chinese blacksmith. This art was also independently invented in the fifteenth century in Central Europe. By its means alone can books be printed at so low a cost as to enable poor people to buy them. Before this invention books were copied by hand, and were so dear that they were read by only a very few rich or learned men. We are from our earliest childhood so much accustomed to the use of books that we can hardly believe how badly off we should be without them. But let us think for a moment of their value to us, and how wonderful it is that we are now able to read the thoughts, the sayings, and deeds of persons, many of whom, like the patriarchs of Bible history, lived several thousand years before the birth of Christ.

Again, the series of discoveries, which led early in the fourteenth century to the manufacture of gunpowder in its present useful form were all made by one or other of the wise men of this zone.

The mariner's compass was first invented in a very remote age by the Chinese, and is known to have been used by them on the sea in the third century. In

Europe its use in navigation was known as early as the fourteenth century. Moreover, a scientific knowledge of astronomy was first acquired by inhabitants of the Northern Temperate Zone.

It is by the aid of astronomy and the compass that the sailor finds his path across the trackless ocean. To enable us to understand the value of the compass let us try to picture to ourselves a ship crossing the North Atlantic Ocean on a stormy winter's night. From time to time the waves break furiously over her deck; the driving snow deepens the surrounding darkness, in which the moon and stars, the raging sea, and even the masts and sails of the vessel are all hidden. Only one bright spot remains in sight, and that is where the binnacle lamp casts its steady light upon the compass. Behind it stands the sturdy helmsman, his eyes intently fixed upon its needle, to which in the hour of danger he can alone look for guidance. However violently the vessel's head is driven by the winds and waves to one side or the other, the needle, held by an unseen, mysterious force, remains immovable on its pivot, always pointing towards a particular spot in the Northern Frigid Zone. It is only by carefully watching its direction that the helmsman can know how the vessel is heading. How helpless then would he be without this faithful monitor!

The invention of the steam engine was also the work of the inhabitants of the Northern Temperate Zone, and our own countrymen, aided by citizens of the United States, have discovered most of the innumerable uses to which it has been put.

Lastly, we must not forget, among the more recent

triumphs of the inventors who have lived in this zone, the electric telegraph, that wonderful instrument by which men thousands of miles apart can communicate with one another in the short space of a few minutes.

Our space will allow us to refer to only one more of the blessings for which we are indebted to the wise men of the Northern Temperate Zone. They discovered the advantages of popular government, under which a large number of people unite to elect from among themselves persons to be their representatives in the government of the country. Such are our members of Parliament, who assist in making the laws and control the taxation of the people. Unless a nation lives under popular government, the poorer part of it seldom have just or merciful treatment.

But although the Northern Temperate Zone has been the birthplace of the wisest men and the cradle of the greatest nations, civilisation has in all ages been confined to only certain parts of it, while others have been inhabited by barbarous races.

China, and the countries bordering on or near to the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, are the regions in which mankind, as far as we know, made the first steps in civilisation.

From Western Asia civilisation slowly spread to Northern India, and also westwards along the shores of the Mediterranean sea, and thence across the great plains of Northern Europe, and to our own islands.

After the discovery of America the inhabitants of several European countries, who had multiplied so

rapidly that they were overcrowded, emigrated across the Atlantic Ocean and gradually possessed themselves of nearly the whole of the North American continent.



ARCTIC VILLAGE WITH SNOW HUTS.

The condition of the native races of the Southern Temperate Zone when it was first explored presented a strange contrast with that of the inhabitants of the corresponding Northern Zone. Before the southern temperate regions were peopled by Europeans, not one of its races had approached to a condition of civilisation, and among

Barbarous
state of
native races
in the South
Temperate
Zone.

them are still several of the lowest and most helpless tribes of savages on the face of the earth.

The Torrid Zone, though possessed of such a luxuriant climate, and producing everything necessary for the wants of man, has been the home of very few great men or famous nations.

The Torrid
Zone un-
favourable
to native
enterprise.

Lastly, when we turn to the North Frigid Zone and the neighbouring lands, we find that, though the inhabitants are hardy and in many ways intelligent, they are generally small in size, and most of them are very ignorant and uncivilised.

Inhabitants
of Arctic
regions
stunted and
ignorant.

LESSON VIII.

INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHICAL CAUSES ON THE PEOPLE OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

FROM the preceding lesson we have learnt that the most enterprising and civilised nations of the day have in all ages inhabited the Northern Temperate Zone. We may also state that, with very few exceptions, they have been engaged in maritime pursuits, and have therefore had constant intercourse with other nations.

These facts prove that climate and other geographical, or, as they are often termed, natural causes, affect in a remarkable manner the characters of the inhabitants of different parts of the world.

Our present object is to examine the ways in which these causes work, and we shall first compare the in-

fluence upon mankind of a temperate climate with that of a tropical one.

Even the warmest parts of the temperate zones are for a few weeks of the year comparatively cool, while in most of the temperate regions changes in the weather are frequent. Now moderate variations in

A temperate climate more favourable than a tropical one to the vigour and intelligence of a people.

the temperature of the successive seasons undoubtedly quicken the intelligence and industry of mankind. If the inhabitants of a variable climate are to avoid the sufferings of cold and hunger, they must provide themselves with solid houses and suitable clothing, and attend carefully to the growth of their crops. In a word, they must in many ways anticipate future wants, or, as sailors express it, 'look far ahead.'

On the other hand, the natives of tropical regions can pass their lives in comfort with comparatively little foresight and exertion. Their needs are few and simple. Their houses are generally only walled in with leaves, reeds, or long grass, fastened on to a slender framework made of the boughs of trees. Throughout the whole year they may go almost naked without feeling chilly. The arts of agriculture in a tropical climate also demand less continuous labour and attention than in a temperate one. Whenever men can obtain with ease all the necessaries of life, they are apt to become indolent. This is especially the case if they inhabit a hot climate, for great heat relaxes bodily strength, and makes even strong men indisposed for hard labour.

From the description given in the last lesson of the inhabitants of the Northern Frigid Zone, it is, however, clear, that though moderate changes in the character

of the successive seasons are favourable to the civilisation of mankind, long winters and extreme cold have

The severe climate of the Arctic regions unfavourable to civilisation.

the opposite effect. The long dreary winter of the Arctic regions not only stunts the bodies and minds of the natives, but also makes them hopeless of bettering their lot.

Next to a position in the Temperate Zone, the most important geographical advantage which a nation can

Influence of maritime life on national character.

enjoy is to dwell in a land bordering on a sea. Especially is this true if the sea be small enough to tempt the people to engage in a

seafaring life. Maritime enterprise has in every age had an extraordinary influence upon the character of the people engaged in it. The sea is in truth a wonderful school in which are developed most of those qualities that tend to make nations great. The perils and hardships of their life train sailors to be calm and self-reliant in times of danger or difficulty, and also to trust in their leaders. If, in the midst of a furious storm, they become excited or confused, or if they hesitate to obey the captain, the vessel may be lost ere they have recovered their senses.

The life of sailors also awakens their intelligence, and leads them to study those sciences which are especially useful to them in their career, such as astronomy, and the causes which affect the direction of the winds, the tides, and the ocean currents.

Moreover, a maritime people have especial opportunities of carrying on intercourse with foreign nations. Now by dealings between the inhabitants of different countries, knowledge is spread through the world. Even the most ignorant tribes of savages generally practise

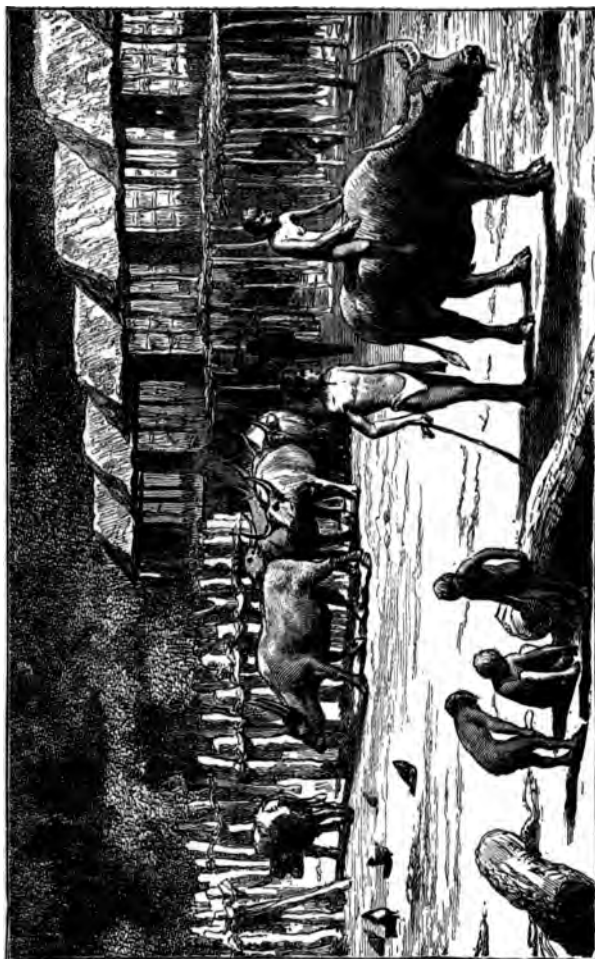
some arts which they have discovered for themselves, and each nation at every stage of its civilisation has acquired some knowledge from the people with whom it has had commercial and other dealings. We consequently find that civilisation in the earlier periods of history generally advanced along the shores of those seas which, like the Mediterranean, were of moderate breadth and abounded in sheltered harbours, so that they could be crossed in the frail little vessels of the olden times. We can readily perceive that these narrow seas must encourage international intercourse, because a sailor may make a long voyage without ever being far from a port in which the vessel may take refuge from sudden storms, and ride out bad weather.

If we examine the globe we shall at once observe that the tropical lands and also the temperate regions of the southern hemisphere contain few of the smaller seas. The great peninsulas which distinguish these regions are separated from one another by oceans so vast that nations in the infancy of civilisation have never dared to sail over them.

The inhabitants of the tropical and the south temperate regions have, therefore, generally lacked the invigorating and inspiring influences of seafaring life, and the instructive intercourse with other countries which it promotes.

It must not, however, be supposed from what has been said that geographical causes are the only ones which promote the growth and spread of civilisation. Pure religious faith has from the earliest ages of which we have any record held a foremost place in the enlightenment and

Geographical causes not the only ones for promoting civilisation.



TROPICAL VILLAGE.

purification of mankind; while in later times Christianity and political freedom have still further widened men's sympathies, and taught them the true principles of justice and mercy.

Until comparatively recent times the American Indians and the degraded races of the southern temperate regions were far beyond the reach of these enlightening influences, and to their disadvantages in this respect may be traced the wretched state in which they have so long remained, notwithstanding the favourable climates under which they live.

The truths which we have endeavoured to explain in this lesson and the previous one may be
Summary. summed up as follows:—

1. That the greatest natural advantages which a people can possess are a temperate climate, with opportunities for following a seafaring life, and for holding intercourse with many other nations.

2. That the greatest of all the advantages a people can possess are an ennobling religious faith and free institutions.

3. That the inhabitants of the Northern Temperate Zone have enjoyed all these advantages more largely than the people of any other region, and consequently it has been the birthplace of the wisest men and the home of the most famous nations.

LESSON IX.

THE RACES OF MANKIND.

WE shall find as we study either geography or history that mankind is divided into races. We ought, therefore, to understand the nature of the distinctions on which these divisions are founded.

When we speak of a particular race, we mean that all the persons belonging to it are remarkable for some peculiarities either in appearance or in language which suggest that they are of the same descent; in other words, that their forefathers long ago were members of the same family. Thus some people have heads and faces so shaped that we know at a glance to what race they belong. It is to be noted, too, that different races use different words to express the same thoughts. But more important than these peculiarities is the fact that the particular character which each race inherited from its ancestors has frequently continued almost unchanged for hundreds of years. Thus some races have been always remarkable for a daring, warlike disposition, while others have been as remarkable for their peaceful habits. A few races have become famous for their wisdom and knowledge, while very many have done little more than just provide themselves with the food, clothes, and dwellings needed to save themselves from actual starvation.

Although we know little of the early history of races, it is certain that in the dawn of civilisation people

generally migrated, that is to say, removed from their homes in large numbers at a time. Thus the most bold and enterprising races were separated into various branches and nations, and each branch or nation received a distinct name.

Division of
races into
separate
branches.

After a race had been so divided, differences of many kinds arose between its several branches; but even though these branches have been separated for many centuries, one or more of their inherited peculiarities of appearance or language still cling to them, and enable us to know that they are descended from the same ancestors. Sometimes the climate of the country into which people removed altered the colour of their skins, while the shape of their heads remained almost unchanged. In every case differences of language took place. In the days of the earliest migrations no one knew how to read or write. Now, as we know, even people living in the same place pronounce the same words very differently, and therefore a language which is never written or spelt constantly undergoes many changes. The sound of the words is soon altered; some words are wholly forgotten, and new ones take their place. The pronunciation, however, of words which are much used and are daily repeated by every one is more easily remembered, and is therefore far more enduring. Thus we find that though the various branches of a parent race may speak very different languages, they generally use a few of the same words.

How differ-
ences grew
up between
branches of
the same
race.

In many cases the nature of the country to which people migrated obliged them to completely alter their ways of living. For instance, they had often to abandon

the occupation of hunting or fishing, or of a wandering pastoral life, and to dwell as farmers all the year round in the same place.

We must also remember that in the olden days it was very difficult for people far apart to hold any intercourse with one another. In those times there were few good roads or ships, and of course no railways, steamers, or postmen. Thus people who had wandered from their native homes were never reminded of the language, the manners, or the customs of the relations they had left behind; they therefore readily acquired new ways and a language of their own.

In the present day marked differences between branches of the same race do not grow up so readily as formerly, because intercourse between them is now made easy. For instance, the English and their American cousins, though separated by the stormiest of oceans, very closely resemble each other, and will probably ever continue to do so, because they trade together, visit each other, exchange letters, and read the same books.

We must add that some races are divided into *tribes*. The word tribe, in former times, had several very different meanings. In the present day it is only used to distinguish the divisions under separate chiefs of barbarous or half-civilised races.

LESSON X.

THE RACES OF MANKIND (*continued*).

WE can here refer to only a few races, the history of which is of special interest to us.

Foremost of all races is the *Aryan*, the earliest forefathers of which dwelt in Asia. To it belonged the ancient Greeks and Romans, and from this race
The Aryan race. are descended most of the nations of modern Europe. The English are spoken of as its *Anglo-Saxon* division. Of this race also are the Hindoos, so many millions of whom are ruled by the English in India.

The Aryan race is so old that history tells us nothing as to its early forefathers. We learn, however, a great deal about them by comparing the various languages still spoken by their numerous descendants. The words now common among all the Aryan nations chiefly describe their methods of agriculture, their family life, and the titles of their rulers. We therefore know that before the race separated into branches it must have been given to cultivating the soil, and accustomed to settled domestic relations and orderly government. In short, it was more or less civilised, otherwise the words referred to would not now be known to all its children. After the race was divided, each different branch of the people had to find new words of their own to describe new thoughts and the new things they used and did. Thus several of the domestic animals, such as the ox and cow, have the same names in India and England; whereas the names of wild animals peculiar to each country, and of weapons

of war and the chase, have different names in almost every Aryan dialect. Through thousands of years, and even down to the present day, the Aryans have retained their liking for agricultural and family life, and for settled government, though in their later homes, under the pressure of necessity, many of them have been also very successful in the arts of war.

Another famous race which had its early home in Asia is the *Semitic*, to which belonged the ancient Assyrians and the Phœnicians, and from which the Jews and Arabs are descended. The ancient Egyptians are by many persons supposed to have belonged to a branch of this race known as the *Hamitic*, the people of which are at present widely spread over North Africa. The Hamites have from the days of Pharaoh down to the present time intermarried with the black, woolly-headed African people, and are therefore what is termed a mixed race.

The *Mongol* is also a race of Asiatic birth, which has played an important part in history though it has done little to further the civilisation of the world. To it have belonged some of the most victorious, but also the most cruel and bloodthirsty, warriors who have ever scourged mankind.

The Chinese are the only nation of Mongol parentage which has ever made any great discoveries and shown inventive genius. Their character has evidently been greatly changed by the nature and position of the country into which they migrated. Dwelling in wonderfully fertile plains, they have devoted themselves to agriculture and to those manufacturing arts which enabled them to put to good use the rich and varied

products of their soil. Moreover, the great navigable rivers which flow through their land are very convenient highways for trade, and they have always encouraged free intercourse between the different parts of the country. Thus the Chinese, though sprung from such a warlike stock, became an agricultural, commercial, and in time a peace-loving nation.

The position of China on the globe placed its people, however, under one great disadvantage. Separated by the sea and by high mountains from all civilised nations, the Chinese, until the middle of this century, held little intercourse with any of their equals, with whom they were therefore unable to compare themselves. Accordingly they became very self-sufficient, and flattered themselves that they had reached the highest pinnacle of wisdom and happiness. For a long time past they have done nothing great, but have gone on slavishly following in the ways of their more intelligent forefathers, whose brilliant inventions they have made few attempts to improve.

Another branch of the Mongol race conquered the greatest part of India, over which their princes ruled until in turn they were conquered by the English. In India as in China the general character of the race was improved, and Akbar the Great, one of the Mongol rulers of the country, was a very wise and good sovereign.

The Turks, who inhabit different parts of Asia and also Turkey in Europe, and the Magyars (a highly civilised people very numerous in Hungary) are likewise classed as branches of the Mongol race; but the European Turks and Magyars have intermarried so

much with Aryans, that in appearance they have ceased to resemble their Mongol kindred.

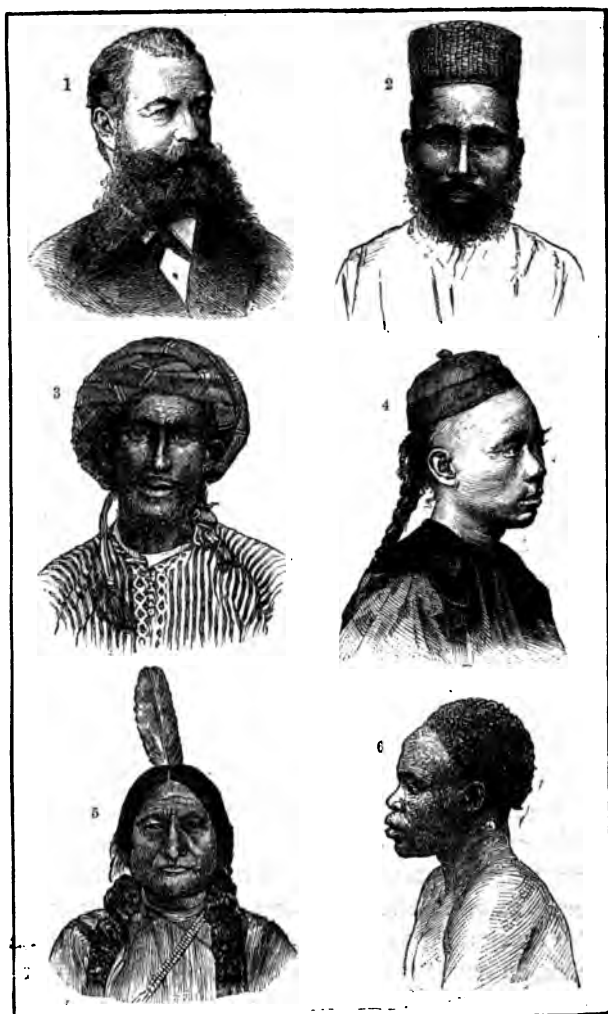
Moreover, all the inhabitants of those northern regions which lie within or on the borders of the Arctic Circle are descendants of the Mongol race.

We may add that most of the Mongol people may be at once known by their flat faces, their high prominent cheek bones, and their curiously shaped eyes. All these peculiarities are seen in the portrait of a Chinaman in the illustration on the next page.

The parent races which we have described—namely, the Aryan, Semitic, and Mongol races—are not only the most famous, but also the races most widely distributed throughout the world; and we must remember that the birthplaces of all of them were in Asia, a continent often therefore spoken of as ‘the cradle of mankind.’

Besides these races there are many others, but all of them are in a more or less barbarous state. In the temperate regions of the earth, in which Europeans are settling in daily increasing hosts, few of the native races are thriving. Too ignorant to protect themselves from infection, they die in thousands of dangerous diseases formerly unknown to them, but which the Europeans have carried into their midst. Other evils follow the arrival of the new-comers. The various strong drinks which Europeans take with them wherever they go are sore temptations to the natives. Many of them barter away all they possess for a few bottles of brandy or rum, and perish from drunkenness or from starvation. Moreover, when their dwelling-places become thickly peopled, the wild animals which had supplied them with a part of their diet are killed in such numbers by

The barbarous races.



RACES OF MANKIND.

1. Aryan race, Anglo-Saxon branch.
2. Aryan race, Hindoo branch.
3. Semitic race, Arabian branch.
4. Mongol race, Chinese branch.
5. Indian chief of North America.
6. Negro of the Guinea Coast.

the settlers as to become very scarce, and the cost of other kinds of food is also increased. Unskilled as workmen, the unfortunate natives can no longer maintain themselves in the old homes of their fathers, and they therefore slowly retire to less happy lands before the ever-advancing strangers.

In spite of the noble efforts of missionaries and others to enlighten these unfortunate people, it seems only too probable, that ere they can be civilised most of them will have disappeared from the face of the earth.

In the tropical regions, on the other hand, where Europeans are few, the natives thrive under British rule.

In conclusion, it is desirable to explain that the word 'race' is often used to describe a branch of a parent one. For instance, we often speak of the Jewish race, though the Jews are only a division of the great Semitic family.

LESSON XI.

COMMERCE OF MANKIND.

IN a previous lesson we read that trade was one of the chief causes of the growth and spread of civilisation.

In the following lessons we shall hear a great deal of the commerce or trade of different countries; it will therefore be as well to gain a clear idea of the meaning of these terms.

Commerce is the exchange of goods either between individuals living in the same country or between the

people of different countries. In the former case it is *inland*, or *internal* trade; in the latter it is *foreign*, or *external*.

Meaning of
various com-
mercial
words.

We also often speak of *colonial* trade, that is, the exchange of goods between a mother country and her colonies; as when England receives timber from Canada and sends manufactured products in return.

The goods sent out from one country to another are called *exports*; those taken in by one country from another are called *imports*.

Exports may be divided into three classes, namely: natural produce, agricultural or farming produce, and manufactured goods.

Under the head of *natural produce* we may mention timber from the forests, the leaves and fruit of trees, and plants native to the soil; the furs and hides of wild animals, and minerals.

Agricultural produce includes, of course, all raw materials obtained from plants cultivated by man, such as wheat, rice, sugar, tea, and coffee; also materials obtained from domestic animals, such as meat, butter, cheese, and wool.

Manufactured goods are those which have been made by the skill of man out of the produce of the animal, vegetable, or mineral world; as, for example, leather, cotton and woollen stuffs, linen, pottery, glass, and metal implements. The word *manufactured* is derived from the Latin language, and means 'made by the hand;' but in our days machinery is so much used that it has to a great extent taken the place of hand labour.

Now there is nothing that tells us more about the

nature and condition of a country than a list of its exports and imports. The class to which the exports of a country will mainly belong depends upon two chief causes : first, its climate and fertility ; secondly, the number and the civilisation of its population.

Causes
which deter-
mine the
commerce of
a country.

The poorest country is that which exports almost solely natural produce. The very fact that it has nothing else to send away shows that the soil is incapable of cultivation, or that the inhabitants are too barbarous to till it, or to understand manufacturing industries. Thus, in the frost-bound northern lands the only exports are the furs of the wild animals. So also there are regions, rich in precious metals or stones, that can never become flourishing countries because of the barrenness of the soil, and which will be deserted as soon as the underground treasures are exhausted. In the Torrid Zone there are also many countries which export only natural produce, because, although the soil is marvellously fertile, the inhabitants are too lazy and too ignorant to cultivate it.

Agricultural and farming produce forms usually the chief exports of newly colonised countries, or of other lands where the climate is favourable and the soil fertile, but where the population is scanty. An instant's reflection will show us the reason of this. In such a country land is cheap ; the growth of crops and the raising of cattle are comparatively easy, and thus more articles of consumption are produced than the inhabitants require for themselves, and so they are able to export the surplus. On the other hand, such a country would be most unfavourable to manufacturing industries, for a master would find it very difficult to hire

people to work for him. Each man would prefer an independent life on his own farm, or would only consent to work for higher wages than the manufacturer could afford to give. In a thinly peopled country, too, the roads are usually few and bad, and the cost of carriage is great. By the time the manufacturer had paid for having the raw material brought to him, and paid again for sending it as manufactured goods away to the nearest market, he would have spent a large sum. In fact, the cost of labour and the cost of carriage would have swallowed up all his profits—that is, the money he hoped to have gained by the sale of the manufactured goods.

Now from what has been said, it will be seen that manufactured articles must be chiefly produced in thickly peopled countries, where there are more inhabitants than the land can support, and where the means of communication are good. Of such a country England is the best illustration. It is so thickly peopled that it would be quite impossible for all its inhabitants to support themselves by agriculture, and there are thousands ready to hire themselves out to work in factories. Everywhere there are roads, railways, and canals along which the internal traffic is carried on. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the country is provided by nature with a convenient water-way, over which the raw material may be brought to Great Britain at a small cost, and over the same pathless tracts English manufactures may be conveyed to every maritime country of the world. Thus in England manufactured goods are the chief exports, and raw materials for the factories and articles of food for her teeming myriads are the chief imports.

It is almost needless to refer to the influence which the civilisation of a people has on its trade. A country may have great natural resources, fertile soil, rich mines, vast pastures, but if it is inhabited only by a barbaric people, all these advantages are wasted. This is what is meant when we say that the resources of a country are undeveloped. Let us take North America as an illustration of this truth. For centuries before the arrival of the Europeans it was peopled only by a few thousand wild Indians, who lived chiefly by hunting. They hardly cultivated the fertile soil at all, and often were half starved in those regions of the world which now not only support many millions of inhabitants at home, but pour forth to other distant lands rich stores of cotton, grain, and other vegetable produce, as well as many valuable minerals.

LESSON XII.

CAUSES OF THE EXTENSION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

WHEN we consider the great extent of the British Empire, the question must naturally force itself upon us, How have so many and such distant countries been brought under British rule?

In the first place we should remember that the British people are, for the most part, descended from very daring, ambitious ancestors. Our Anglo-Saxon, Danish, and Norman forefathers belonged to races ever ready to face dangers and hardships, if by so doing they could

The British character is fitted to obtain widespread dominion.

enrich themselves, or move into homes where they would be better off.

In the British islands these races found a climate remarkably temperate and bracing, which fostered their bodily strength and their bold, sturdy character. Encouraged by the sheltered bays, snug harbours, and convenient sandy beaches which vary the English coasts, our forefathers took to a seafaring life, either as fishermen, or to supply their wants from the neighbouring parts of Europe. Thus, their original descent, the climate of their native land, and their maritime tastes all combined to make the British people vigorous and enterprising, and in time to prepare them for distant and perilous voyages to India and to the thinly peopled lands of the American continent.

Secondly, we must consider how fortunate the United Kingdom is in her geographical position. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the British islands are almost protected by nature from the dangers of foreign conquest. For instance, when in the reign of Queen Elizabeth Spain attacked England, the Spanish armies were much larger than the English could have raised. Nevertheless, the countless hosts of Spain availed her nothing, as she could not land them on our shores, and accordingly with the destruction of her vaunted Armada her hopes of conquering England came to an end.

Now the comparative security of the British in their sea-girt home has enabled the nation, when favourable opportunities offered, to devote its power mainly to the extension of its dominion over distant lands. Indeed, it may be said that this was the chief,

Geographical position of the United Kingdom favourable to the extension of English rule.

though not always the most apparent, object of most of the wars England waged against the armies of her Continental neighbours during the eighteenth century. Not only did she meet them on the battle-fields of India and America, but also on European soil.

On the other hand, some of the most powerful of the European nations were so much weakened by desperate contests with one another for the defence of their own homes, that they were obliged on several occasions to abandon the possessions they had already secured across the seas.

And here we must refer to the various motives which led our nation gradually to change their little kingdom into a world-wide empire.

Motives
which
prompted
the extension
of
British rule
over distant
lands.

The advantages of foreign commerce first made the English desire foreign possessions. In bygone days every nation selfishly endeavoured to keep to itself all the trade of distant countries under its rule, so that if a maritime people had no foreign possessions of their own, they laboured under a great disadvantage.

Other and far nobler motives than the mere love of gain have, however, played an important part in the colonisation of the British Empire. Before religious freedom was established in England, many of the people were not allowed to worship God in the manner they thought right, and rather than sacrifice their liberty of conscience, they emigrated to the wilds of North America.

The rapid increase in the population of the United Kingdom has been another, and in the present century the main, cause of emigration.

Civilisation, which is now striding onwards so wonderfully in the United Kingdom, tends to prolong the lives of the people, and thus to increase their number. A highly civilised nation can protect itself against many of the ills of life which keep down the population in countries less enlightened and intelligent. For instance, as the foreign trade of Britain increased, her people learnt how to guard against scarcity in bad seasons by importing grain and other food from the less thickly inhabited parts of the world. As their knowledge grew, they were also able more surely to cure diseases and to check their spread. Most of the healing drugs we now use can only be obtained abroad, and they were formerly unknown in our land. Again, before the secret of vaccination was discovered, the deaths from small-pox were very frequent, and in countries where it is not practised they are still very numerous. All the inhabitants of one of the Faroe islands were once swept away by this dread disease, and very recently it has destroyed entire tribes of North American Indians. These instances illustrate only a few of the many ways in which civilisation increases the population of a country, and creates overcrowding, if large families are common and the people do not emigrate freely. Thousands of our fellow-countrymen go to the United States or to our own colonies every year because their native land is so thickly peopled that they cannot prosper in it.

The foreign possessions of England have in recent times been ruled over with a just and tender hand. Enjoying herself the blessings of freedom, England has had the wisdom to allow her colonies to make their own

laws. They are consequently passionately attached to their mother country, proud of her past history, and of the majestic empire of which they form a part. Very different from the conduct of England to her colonial subjects has been the conduct of several other countries. Spain and Portugal, for instance, regarded foreign possessions only as a means of enriching the country to which they belonged. To escape from cruel oppression most of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies revolted, and fortunately for themselves and mankind they secured their independence.

Foreign
possessions
of England
retained by
the justice
and mildness
of her rule.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth will for ever remain memorable in the history of England as a period of great men and great events. During this reign the attention of the English was first awakened to the wealth derived by some of their European neighbours from their foreign possessions, and an adventurous and ambitious spirit spread through the nation. Among the earliest fruits of this new influence was the attempt by Sir Walter Raleigh to plant a British colony in North America. But it proved to be a failure, and was soon abandoned by the few English who had attempted to settle there. Another and lasting result of the enterprise of the age was the formation in London of the English East India Company, an association originally founded only to trade with the East Indies, but which in time became the rulers over a large part of those regions.

Ambition of
the English
to acquire
distant
possessions
first awak-
ened in the
reign of
Queen
Elizabeth.

The manner in which the most important of the British possessions were successively acquired will be

related in connection with the lessons which describe them.

It is desirable here to explain that the British Empire contains two very different classes of possessions, namely,—

(1) The possessions which may be described as simply ‘dependencies,’ and which contain few British residents. They are chiefly inhabited by natives whose forefathers have dwelt in these lands for many ages, who speak a language of their own, and in many other ways differ widely from our fellow-countrymen. These possessions lie either in the Torrid Zone where the climate is not suitable to British races, or in the very cold northern regions.

(2) The ‘colonies,’ which now contain a large and daily increasing British population. When first discovered they were for the most part only thinly peopled by races of savages, who began to die out when Europeans first settled among them.

These colonies all lie in one or other of the temperate zones, with the exception of some few regions which stretch into the tropics, but in which the heat of the sun is modified by special and local causes.

LESSON XIII.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF INDIA.

THE British possessions in Asia all lie either within the Torrid Zone or in neighbouring regions where, during

the whole or greater part of the year, the climate, except in the high mountainous districts, is very hot.

General character of the Asiatic possessions. It is not, therefore, surprising to find that in these possessions there are no colonies and but few British residents: most of these are either in the army, in the other services of the British Government, or engaged in commerce.

Foremost among our Eastern dependencies is India, otherwise named Hindostan, that is, the land of the Hindoos. Situated half within and half without the tropics, it extends from 68° to 92° E. longitude, or with Burmah to 100° E. longitude; and from 8° to 36° N. latitude. No country has more marked boundaries. To the south it tapers away to a point, so that it has only three sides. It is bordered on the east by the Bay of Bengal, on the west by the Arabian Sea, while on its third, and northern side, it is cut off from the rest of Asia by mountains, some of which, extending in parallel ridges for more than half the length of the frontier, and known as the Himalayas, are the highest ranges in the whole world. Forty of the peaks exceed in height 24,000 feet, and one of them, called Mount Everest, supposed to be the highest mountain on the globe, attains an altitude of 29,000 feet.

Besides this clearly defined territory there is on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal a long strip of coast land known as British Burmah, which is a British possession, and is usually spoken of as a part of the Indian Empire.

In the whole length of the great mountain wall which divides the Indian peninsula from Asia there is only

one weak point through which an invading host could enter. It lies upon the north-west, towards the junction of the Himalaya ranges with a chain known as the Suleiman mountains. Here, among other defiles, are the deep Khyber and Bolan passes, more famous in history than any other gorges in the world, for through one or other of them all the conquerors of India except the Europeans have in turn entered.

Neither is the Indian peninsula accessible on many points on the sea-coast. The eastern shores only possess one good harbour, and on the west coast there are only three.

Having now learnt the boundaries of the country, let us try to form an idea of its vast size. It is fifteen times as large as Great Britain; or, to make this clear to the eye, suppose we draw a line from Madras on the east coast, due west to the other coast, then the triangle of land south of this line would be equal to the united areas of England and Scotland.

This extensive peninsula is divided into three well-marked portions. In the extreme north are the long mountain slopes of the Himalayas; immediately south of these come the wide-stretching plains known, from the names of the two great rivers which drain them, as the plains of the Ganges and Indus, which extend across the continent from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal; still further south rises the great plateau called the Deccan, with a mean elevation of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, enclosed on the north by the Vindhya mountains and on the flanks by the two ranges known respectively as the Eastern and the Western Ghauts, the latter being much more continuous, and having a

Relief.

higher mean altitude than the range on the east coast. The Ghauts unite in the south of India, where one peak has a height of 8,700 feet.

By far the greatest portion of the rainfall of India is drained away by six noble rivers, the Ganges, *Brahmaputra*, and *Indus*, which are the great Rivers. rivers of the northern plains; and the *Nerbudda*, *Godavery*, and *Krishna*, in the Deccan.

The *Ganges*, which has its main source in the central parts of the Himalaya mountains, and flows eastwards into the Bay of Bengal, is the great water-way of the richest and most populous part of India. The main stream is navigable for small vessels to a distance inland of 1,000 miles, and many of its tributaries are also navigable for long distances. Among these tributaries the most noteworthy is the *Jumna*, which, rising near to the source of the main stream, flows almost parallel to it until it approaches the junction of the two rivers at a town called Allahabad. About 200 miles from the sea the *Ganges* is joined by the *Brahmaputra*, which brings down an enormous volume of water from the eastern Himalayas and the high table-lands to the north of them. Its upper course has not been explored, but its main stream and many of its tributaries are navigable to great distances from its mouth. The united rivers form a delta of vast extent, through which they flow in many different and ever-shifting channels to the sea, which they discolour with their muddy water to a distance of sixty miles from the coast. The channel through this delta, which connects Calcutta, the greatest seaport of India, with the sea, is known as the river *Hoogly*.



VIEW ON THE RIVER GANGES.

The *Indus* drains the north-western plains, and flowing in a southerly direction from the Himalayas, almost parallel to the Suleiman ranges, discharges its waters into the Arabian Sea. It is formed by the union of five large rivers, the basin of which is accordingly called the Punjab, that is, the 'country of five streams.' After receiving these tributaries, its basin is so liable to be overflowed by its waters, that no towns and very few villages are to be found along its solitary course. It is navigable, as well as its five great tributaries, for small vessels almost up to the foot of the hills.

In the Deccan there are few great rivers, but hundreds of smaller streams. The only rivers which from their size deserve special notice are the *Nerbudda*, which drains the northern part of the Deccan and flows in a westerly course to the Arabian Sea, and the *Godavery* and *Krishna*, both of which have their sources in the Western Ghauts, and flowing south-eastwards across the centre of the Deccan discharge their waters through mouths only about 100 miles apart into the Bay of Bengal.

Although the peninsula of India extends over a very wide range of latitude, the climate is of the same character throughout almost the whole of it. The explanation of this fact is found in a variety of local causes. In the low northern plains, which lie within the Temperate Zone, these causes are of such a character as to raise the temperature; while in the Deccan, which lies in the tropical regions, the local causes moderate it. The low northern plains are shut out from the cool north winds by the high frontier mountains, which further increase the temperature

Climate.

by the warmth reflected from their sunny slopes. Moreover, the northern plains are swept by scorching winds, heated in their passage over a dry desert known as the Great Indian Desert, which lies east of the lower basin of the Indus. On the other hand, in the tropical table-lands of the Deccan, the heat is moderated by the greater elevation of the land and the nearness of the sea. The result is that the climate of the greatest part of India is agreeably cool for about three months during the winter, but very hot all the rest of the year. It is fortunate for the English residents that there are places in many parts of India situated so high up in the mountains as to be moderately cool even in the middle of summer, and during this season they are largely frequented by Europeans.

The broad expanse of ocean which surrounds the peninsula on two sides supplies it, in most years, with an abundant supply of moisture during the prevalence of the winds known as the south-western monsoon. No event is more anxiously looked for than the beginning of the rainy season, for upon its timely occurrence depends the growth of the crops, and especially of the rice crop, which supplies a large part of the food of the people. During the first quarter of the year the weather is dry, but as summer approaches, the rain-bearing clouds come from the south-west and south, and refresh the parched soil with such torrents of rain as are seldom equalled outside the tropical regions. At night, heavy white mists hang over the ground, and even in the daytime they are so dense as to obscure the sun. The weather is then most oppressive, and, in the low plains, very unhealthy for Europeans. In the third

Rainfall.

quarter of the year the damp sea breezes give way to steady land breezes from the north-east, and the weather becomes clear and pleasant. Some of the luxurious princes of India in former days had three palaces so situated as to be respectively adapted to the different seasons of the year.

The rainfall, however, is not equally distributed. It is very heavy on the southern slopes of the Himalayas and on the Western Ghauts, and abundant over the basin of the Ganges. But in some parts of the peninsula the rainfall is always deficient, and in dry seasons so short that the crops completely fail. One large part in the lower basin of the Indus, near to which there are no high lands to condense the moisture wafted from the sea, receives so little rain that it is known as the Great Indian Desert.

The interior of the Deccan also often suffers from want of rain, as the Ghauts intercept a large proportion of the rainfall, and in some years exhaust the sea breezes of their moisture before they reach far inland. But the streams which are fed by the copious rains on the Western Ghauts carry a great volume of water across the Deccan in the wet season. These supplies are husbanded by artificial irrigation, that is to say, streams are in many places banked and dammed up so as, during the wet season, to retain their waters, which are afterwards distributed over the land by a multitude of small channels made for the purpose.

LESSON XIV.

VEGETATION AND ANIMAL LIFE OF INDIA.

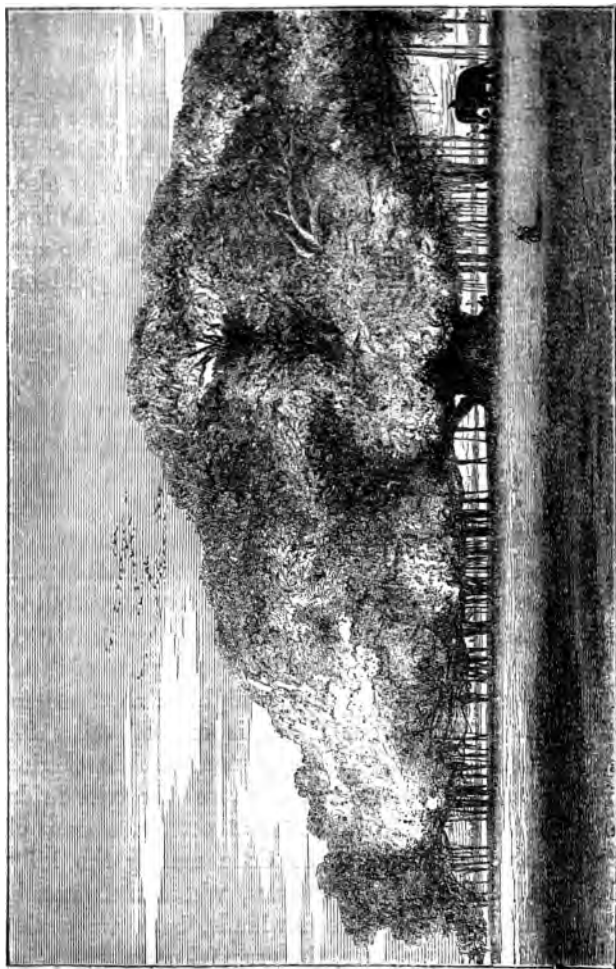
VEGETATION flourishes best in those districts of India where the rain is most regular and abundant. In the areas poorly supplied with rain the growth of Vegetation. plants is not so luxuriant, and in times of unusual drought the crops fail, and are followed by those terrible famines of which the victims are reckoned by tens, and even by hundreds of thousands.

The variety of Indian vegetation is extraordinary. In the extreme north, high up in the Himalayan ranges, only lichens and other small Arctic plants are found. As we descend, we pass through great forests of evergreen pine until we come to a height where English trees, such as a kind of oak, the walnut, and the mulberry, flourish. Lower still, we reach a level at which wheat and tea are so successfully cultivated that they are among the most valuable exports of the country. Below this region, near the foot of the Himalayas, is a broad band of marshy ground, clothed with luxuriant vegetation. Here, besides dense forests, are long stretches of open space covered with huge waving grasses, reaching higher than a man's head. These are the well-known jungles, the favourite haunts of the tiger and other wild animals. Further south we enter the broad plains of the Ganges and its tributaries. In these parts all the land is under cultivation, though not in the best manner, but after the fashion of the Hindoos, who have lived in these plains for thousands

of years. Yet so rich is the soil, and so plentiful the supply of water, that the crops are very heavy in spite of the poor method of cultivation.

Rice is the grain chiefly cultivated in these parts. It forms the principal food of the people not only here but in the Indus Valley, and also in Burmah, where it is the main product of the country. The poppy also, from which opium is manufactured for export to China, is largely grown in the northern plains; as also are cotton, jute, indigo, and several plants which yield oil seeds.

Proceeding south from the river plains, we begin to ascend to the higher regions of the Deccan, through vast tropical woods, inhabited by some of the lower Indian races. Although this enormous central table-land is almost entirely within the Torrid Zone, its greater height above the sea renders it cooler in summer than the plains of the Ganges and Indus. European grains, such as wheat and barley, are cultivated here with great success, and large quantities are now exported to British markets. As we approach, however, nearer to the Equator, true tropical plants take the place of those generally prevalent in the Deccan highlands. Thus, in southern India the coffee shrub is one of the chief objects of cultivation. The important article of rice cannot generally be grown, because the rice-fields require to be covered with water at certain seasons of the year, and this cannot be done among the hilly offshoots of the southern Deccan, where moisture is not abundant. Along the lowlands, both upon the eastern and western shores, the graceful cocoa-nut palm grows luxuriantly.



One of the most remarkable trees peculiar to India is the banyan,—

‘Branching so broad and long, that in the ground
The bended twigs take root, and daughters grow
About the mother tree.’

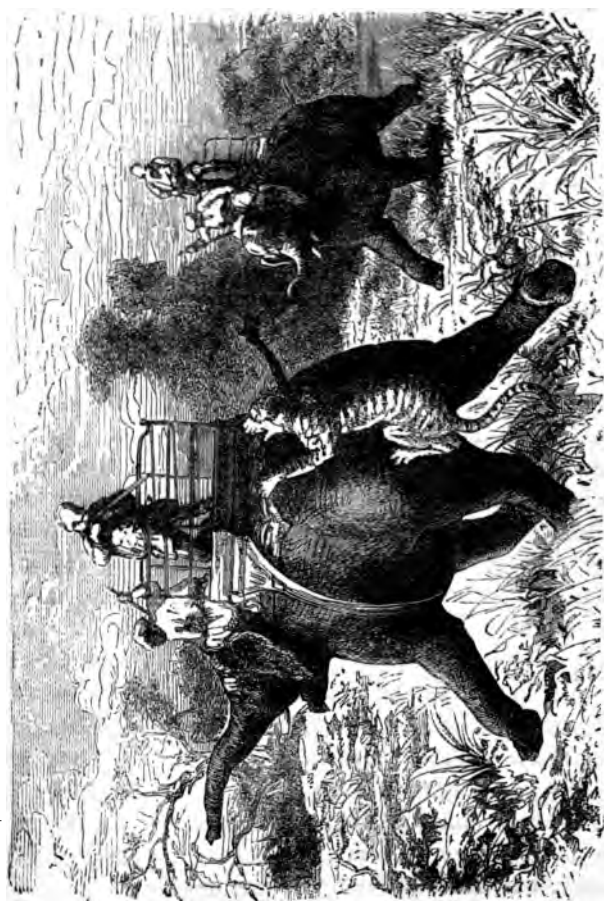
On an island in the Nerbudda there is a banyan tree covering four acres of ground, of enormous age, and supposed to be the same tree as the one described by an officer of Alexander the Great. Under it, in times of flood, as many as 7,000 men have taken shelter.

Where vegetable food grows in such abundance as in India, herbivorous animals are sure to be found in large numbers. The elephant, rhinoceros, and wild boars, all abound on the southern slopes of the Himalayas. Monkeys are common in the forests of the Deccan, and snakes, especially venomous kinds, such as the deadly cobra, are numerous and widely distributed.

Among domestic animals, large herds of oxen, camels, sheep, and goats are found chiefly in the Punjab and the district immediately south of it; but India is on the whole more an agricultural than a grazing land. The horses are generally poor, though there are some hardy breeds of ponies in the Himalayas.

Interest is awakened rather by the huge beasts of prey, which work such frightful destruction upon cattle and even upon man. In the Indian desert the lion still finds a home; but this beast is quite second in importance to the tiger, which is found in all parts of the country, but more especially in the jungles of the great river plains. The finest kind is the Bengal tiger, a

truly magnificent beast, sometimes measuring fifteen feet in length, tail included.



TIGER-HUNTING.

Leopards, even more cat-like in their form than the tiger, abound in India. A small kind, called the cheetah, is trained for use in hunting antelopes.

It is a melancholy fact that more than 20,000 persons are killed every year in India by wild beasts and snakes.

LESSON XV.

NATIVE POPULATION OF INDIA.

THE earliest event in the history of India of which we have any knowledge is the invasion of the country by a branch of the Aryan race, which, about 2,000 years before the birth of Christ, descended from the central uplands of Asia, and settled in the most fertile of the northern Indian plains. The descendants of the Aryan invaders are now known as Hindoos. From the rich northern plains they gradually drove the older inhabitants into the hilly and less fertile districts of the Deccan, those who remained behind being treated as little better than slaves by the conquerors.

The Hindoos were very proud of their descent and of their handsome features, which in shape were very like those of many Europeans of the present day, who, we must remember, are also Aryans, though the complexion of the Hindoos is dark brown. To preserve their distinguishing features and characteristics the Hindoos made strict laws forbidding marriage with the older races. But as children had already been born of mixed marriages, they divided society

into a number of classes. The highest class was composed of Hindoos of the purest descent; the lowest class was formed of the slaves; while those in whose veins was mixed blood ranked in an intermediate position.

After a time these classes became more and more subdivided, and grew further and further apart, until at last a person of a higher class would not eat, marry, or pray with one of a lower grade.

This is the system called caste. It was encouraged by the religion of the Hindoos, called Brahminism, the priests of which ultimately formed the highest caste, and were alone able to offer the sacrifices of animals, which were considered of the highest importance.

About five hundred years before Christ's birth a great religious reformer rose in the valley of the Ganges, and set his face against a great many of the doctrines of Brahminism. He taught that sacrifices of animals, fasting, and penances were of no avail, and declared that for all who accepted his religious teaching distinctions of caste vanished. He is generally called Buddha, or the enlightened one. His noblest doctrine was that a man is only better or worse than his neighbour according to the purity of his thoughts and deeds. The Buddhist religion spread rapidly far and wide, but after some centuries it suffered such a terrible persecution that it was said not a Buddhist remained in India. In Ceylon, Burmah, some of the Himalaya States, Mongolia, and China, Buddhism has flourished so much that it possesses at the present day more followers than any other religion in the world.

But a third religion, more warlike in spirit than any of the others, afterwards spread to dispute with

Brahminism the obedience of the Indian races.

Mohammedan invasions of India. This was the creed of Mohammed, who, in the seventh century after Christ, founded a new religion in Arabia. He taught the belief in only one God, and that Mohammed was his chosen prophet. His successors sent out armies over nearly half the known world with the battle cry, 'Believe, or die!' India alone, in consequence of her isolated position, escaped for a time. But Arab seamen, who were the chief traders to her ports, must no doubt have brought across the sea tidings of the new faith and of its marvellous victories.

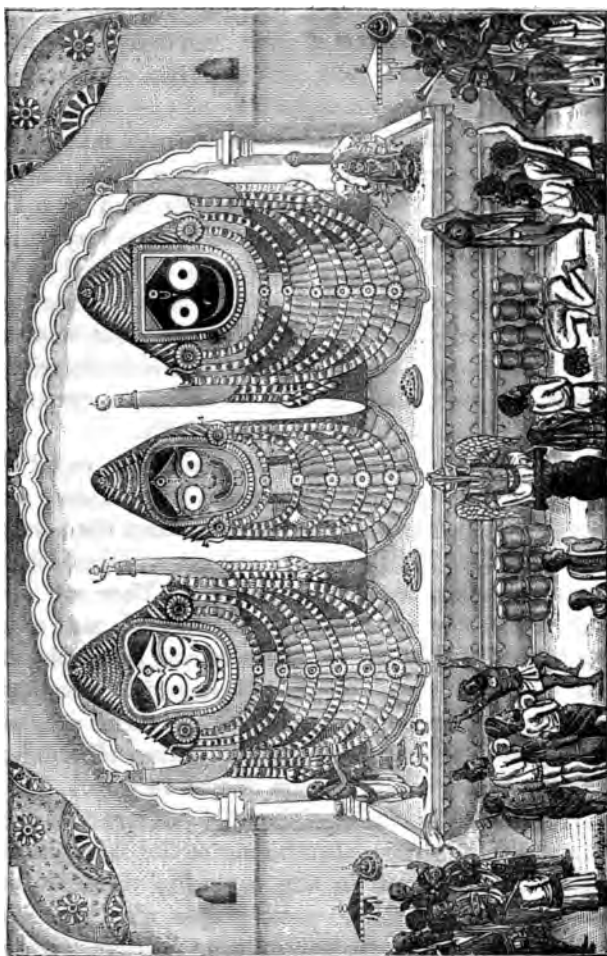
In the beginning of the eleventh century the people of Afghanistan who had been converted to Mohammedanism invaded North-Western India, and in the course of two hundred years built up several Mohammedan kingdoms in the plains of the Indus and Ganges, though the Hindoos at first fought bravely for their faith and homes.

The Mongol followers of Mohammed next broke through the Khyber Pass, and under their great leader, Baber, in the sixteenth century laid the foundation of the Mogul Empire, of which Delhi was the capital. The Mogul power, further extended by Baber's grandson, Akbar the Great, held the larger part of India under its rule until the arrival of the English, when the government gradually passed into their hands.

During the period of the Mohammedan inroads the history of India is, with the exception of one or two glorious reigns, a hideous record of the conflict between

those who clung to the ancient religion of the Hindoos and the fierce followers of Mohammed, and this passionate struggle continued until the English, with a strong hand, put an end to the strife.

The population of India now numbers 250 millions, of whom little less than three-fourths are of the Hindoo race. Though far more numerous in the northern plains than elsewhere, this race is now spread over many parts of the Deccan. In bodily strength and character the Hindoos vary according to the districts they inhabit, the most vigorous and the most warlike divisions of the race being found in the hilly frontier districts, where the winter for some months is very cold. The oppression at the hands of their tyrannical princes under which they suffered for ages has done much to degrade their character. Like most people who have been harshly and unjustly treated, they are generally untruthful, suspicious, and in some ways childish. When kindly treated, however, they often are very grateful and faithful to their employers. Some few of the wealthier Hindoos have been very well educated in the English universities, and a great many more in the Indian universities and schools. Among them are a large number of the 'civil servants' of the Government, who are employed as collectors of taxes, magistrates, and clerks. The race, with the exception of the comparatively few Christian converts, is very superstitious. In former days, at the procession of Juggernaut, an idol was dragged about upon an enormous car by thousands of fanatics, some of whom sacrificed their lives by throwing themselves under its wheels in honour of the hideous image. Widows frequently threw



HINDOOS WORSHIPPING IDOLS AT JUGGERNAUT.

themselves on the blazing funeral piles of their husbands and perished in the flames, because they wished their souls to accompany those of their husbands to the other world. The British Government has, however, been very successful in stopping many of these cruel rites.

Besides the Hindoos, there are in India many other distinct native races divided into countless branches, between which intermarriages have been frequent, so that the population is a very mixed one. Most of these races have been converted to the religion of the Hindoos, and for this reason alone they are often called Hindoos. Thus this word has now two distinct meanings, and is sometimes used to describe a person of Aryan descent, and sometimes a person of another race but of the Brahminical faith.

Of the older native races of India none equal the best of the Hindoos in civilisation and intelligence with the exception of the Parsis, who, in about the seventh century, fled to India from Persia to escape the Mohammedan persecutions in that country. They are comparatively few in number, but are a valuable part of the population, as they are very industrious, peaceable, and fond of trade, many of them being rich merchants, bankers, or shopkeepers, and all of them are very friendly to the British Government. They all still hold to the ancient Persian religion of fire-worship.

In the least habitable of the hilly and forest districts are some tribes supposed to belong to the oldest race in India. Though small in size, several of them are well built and plucky. Like most people who have been driven by stronger races into poor districts, they are given to robbing their more fortunate neighbours, but

some of them, when taken into the pay of the English, have proved very useful and trustworthy on police duty and as servants.

LESSON XVI.

ESTABLISHMENT OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

THE remarkable event which opened Asia to the inroads of the European nations took place in the year 1497, when the famous Portuguese navigator, Vasco di Gama, discovered that there was a continuous water-way from Europe to India round the Cape of Good Hope. The trade between Europe and the East had before his time passed exclusively through the Asiatic and Egyptian ports of the Mediterranean Sea. Along these shores the Italian merchants met Arab traders from all parts of Asia, and exchanged their goods for the spices, the costly fabrics, and the jewels of the East. But the knowledge of a water-way around South Africa enabled European merchants to communicate directly with all the rich coast lands of the most distant parts of Asia. For nearly a century, Portugal, to whom the glory of the discovery belonged, reaped the chief benefit of it. Afterwards, as her power began to decline, rivals appeared in the Eastern seas. The Dutch were the first to dispute the Portuguese claims to all the profits of the new fields of commerce. The French also hastened to take part in a trade which was supposed to bring untold wealth to its promoters. Both the French and Dutch formed trading companies, built offices and warehouses, or, as

Asia thrown
open to the
European
nations by
the dis-
covery of
Vasco di
Gama.

they were termed, 'factories' in the East, made treaties with the native princes, and wrested from Portugal many of her territorial possessions.

Meantime, in London Queen Elizabeth had, in 1600, granted to a company of merchants a charter bestowing on them the sole right to the British trade in the Eastern seas.

The English
East India
Company
acquire the
earliest
British
possessions
in Asia.

This company, known as the English East India Company, was destined to found the British Empire in India. At first its only object was trade. In pursuit of commercial gains it came, however, into conflict with the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the French; but in spite of their opposition it prospered on the whole, and succeeded in founding factories both in the East India islands and on the mainland.

While the European nations were thus gaining a footing in the East, the great peninsula of Hindostan was in a state of confusion from the rivalries of its native rulers.

The power of the famous line of Mohammedan princes, known as the Great Moguls, was gradually becoming less and less. The period of the great decline dates from the year 1707, when the last able ruler died. His successors were men too weak in character to hold the Empire together: it was consequently broken up, and numerous States rose out of its ruins. Some of these were governed by lieutenants who still called themselves subjects of the Great Mogul, but who, in reality, were almost independent. Others fell under the sway of princes who founded new dynasties and asserted their complete independence.

In the midst of the confusion the celebrated Dupleix, the Governor of the French factory of Pondicherry, formed the plan of making his nation the dominant power in India. This he tried to do by encouraging and taking advantage of the quarrels of the native princes, and by training an army of native soldiers to fight under French officers. For a time it seemed as if his aims were about to succeed. His influence was all powerful in the country, but his schemes soon brought him into conflict with the English, and a desperate struggle for the mastery arose between them and the French.

Struggle
between the
British and
French for
rule in
India.

At this time there was at Madras, in the service of the English East India Company, a young clerk named Robert Clive. The troubles between his own countrymen and the French obliged him to forsake the pen for the sword, and before long he proved himself one of the most daring commanders the world has ever produced. With a handful of Europeans and some native troops, whom he had trained into valuable soldiers, he won success after success both over the French generals and the native princes. Dupleix, completely worsted, returned to his native land, where he died of a broken heart, and his countrymen were driven almost entirely out of the peninsula.

From this time onwards the power of England in India steadily increased. The Company, which at first possessed only a few isolated trading forts, gradually acquired vast territories. Each factory became the centre of a subject region, and finally, after a long series of wars and intrigues, the English became the acknowledged rulers of the whole of India, with the exception

of a few decaying settlements insignificant in extent, which still remain under the rule of other of the European nations.

There are, it is true, native princes who still bear proud titles, and even States reputed independent, but they only rule on sufferance; and would be deposed at once if they dared to thwart the wishes of the English.

A great part of Western Burmah is also now included in the Indian Empire. The king of that country, having more than once provoked the British into war with him, lost a large portion of his territory.

The East India Company, to which we owe our possessions in India, no longer rules there. Its monopoly

The East India Company deprived of its trade, and its rule transferred to the English Crown.

of trade was abolished in the early part of this century, and in 1857, after a mutiny of native troops, an Act of Parliament obliged the Company to cede to the British Crown its dominion in the Indian peninsula.

At a later period, on January 1, 1877, the viceroy of Queen Victoria, in the presence of a brilliant assembly of native princes, proclaimed her the Empress of India.

LESSON XVII.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF INDIA.

THE people of India have been rendered so helpless by the tyranny which they long suffered under native rule, that they are at present considered unfit for self-govern-

ment. Accordingly, in India there are no Houses of Commons or other forms of popular government, such as those in existence in most of the British colonies. The inhabitants of India can therefore take no part in making the laws which they have to obey, or in fixing the amount and kind of taxes which they have to pay.¹

The Queen of England is the Empress of India, and the British Parliament controls the government of the country. But, as London is so far from India, a viceroy, or, as he is sometimes called, a governor-general, is sent there by the Queen to represent her, and he rules over the entire peninsula. He is generally a distinguished English statesman who only holds office for a few years. In the discharge of his duties he is assisted by two councils, in both of which are several members possessed of long experience in the government of India.

Under the viceroy, and subject to his authority, are a multitude of other rulers, each of whom is in charge of a separate province. Some of the rulers are English officials, and are termed governors, or lieutenant-governors, or commissioners; others are native princes, many of whom retain the Indian titles by which their predecessors were known before the English possessed power in the peninsula.

Thus India is divided into many States governed in a variety of ways. They may broadly be divided into two classes. (1) There are what are termed 'British territories,' of which the rulers are British officials. In the more important territories the governors are, like the viceroy, assisted by councils of wise men, and in

¹ In some districts elective municipalities have been recently established, which give the people some control over local questions.

every territory there are a number of secretaries, tax-collectors, magistrates, and clerks in the service of the Government, all of whom are called 'civil servants,' to distinguish them from the military officers. (2) There are the 'Native States,' of which the rulers are native princes. All these States are under the protection of the British Government, and are no longer allowed to engage in wars with one another. In some of them, however, the rulers are much more under the control of the British Government than in others. Many of the native States pay tribute to the viceroy, and are occupied by detachments of British troops, while an official is appointed by the viceroy to reside at each of their courts to watch over the welfare of the people. On the other hand, there are native States which have armies of their own, pay no tribute, and in the internal affairs of which the supreme Government interferes hardly at all.

The total number of troops under the Government of India is 200,000, of whom two-thirds are native troops and the remainder English regiments, which are sent out in turn to serve for a limited time. These troops are divided into three separate armies, known respectively as the armies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, each of which is distributed over a number of territories as well as many native States.

The expenses of the Government are mainly derived from three taxes—those on land, opium, and salt.

Such is a broad outline of the present Government of India. Next let us consider what have been its fruits.

Condition of India under native rule. Before the peninsula passed into our possession there were no roads, but only narrow, rough tracks and paths; hence merchandise and agricultural

produce could only be moved with great labour from one place to another, and grain often rotted where it was grown because the cost of carrying it to market was so great. Irrigation was neglected and famines frequent. The people, sunk in ignorance and superstition, were given to cruel and degrading rites. Between the various States wars never ceased, as each ruler was ambitious to extend his dominions.

Robberies and murders were so common that people could only travel at the risk of their lives. Among the most treacherous robbers were the dreaded thugs, who belonged to a murderous brotherhood, the members of which were widely spread through the land. Their practice was to attend the great fairs, to which the natives came long distances to sell their farm produce and to supply their wants. At these fairs the thugs, disguised as merchants and tradesmen, made friends with rich natives, and having obtained their confidence, proposed that they should all travel together for mutual protection. Having thus enticed the unsuspecting victims into their company, the thugs watched for their opportunity. This they frequently found when the whole party had retired to some lonely wood for the night, and were sitting together over their evening meal. Then one of the thugs would narrate some fairy tale or thrilling story. At the moment when the travellers were listening most eagerly to the charmer, some of the other thugs would silently range themselves unperceived behind the travellers, and, on the signal of their leader, would whip a handkerchief round the neck of each of the victims, tightening it in a second so as to strangle them before they could even utter a sound.

From this dark picture of India in the past, let us now turn to the present condition of the country. We shall then see how marvellous are the changes brought about by the firmness and justice of British rule. India now possesses 20,000 miles of good roads and nearly half that length of railways, and 20,000 miles of telegraph wires. Through the British post-offices 130 millions of letters are sent every year. Huge reservoirs and irrigation works guard against famines in dry seasons. Many of the most cruel heathen rites have been stopped, and zealous missionaries are making known the Christian faith far and wide. The children in the elementary schools now exceed two millions. There are three universities for the natives on the same model as that of London. Wars have ceased between the rival princes, who now, controlled by a strong hand, are obliged to let their subjects live in peace. Robberies and murders are comparatively rare, and so many of the thugs have been hanged for their misdeeds that the brotherhood has been completely suppressed. Under these favourable circumstances trade has increased in an extraordinary manner, so that India is now enriched by a foreign commerce eight times as valuable as it was forty-five years ago.

Thus, among a people numbering at least 250,000,000, divided into many races, speaking many different languages, and belonging to a variety of hostile sects, the English have established peace and good order where bloodshed and anarchy before prevailed. Well, therefore, may India be termed the 'brightest jewel of the British crown.'

But though the English are able to rule India they

Improved
condition of
India under
British rule.

can never colonise it. Their children always become delicate if they remain in India for more than about six years after their birth. At this age they are generally sent home, and after they have attained their full growth often return to India, to follow in their parents' footsteps.

LESSON XVIII.

STATES AND CITIES OF INDIA.

WE shall now describe some of the most interesting States and cities of India, taking them in the order in which they lie in the course of a well-planned tour through the country.

The shortest voyage from England to India is that by way of the Suez Canal to the great seaport of *Bombay*.

The Bombay Presidency, and cities of Bombay, Poona, and Surat. On his arrival at that city, the traveller finds himself in the capital of one of the great political divisions of India, known as the *Bombay Presidency*. It occupies an enormous tract of territory, bordering the west coast, the greatest part of which, including the city of Bombay, is directly under British rule, but it also comprises a few native States still partially independent.

The city of Bombay stands upon a small island, which has now however been united with the mainland by a causeway and railways. Between the island and mainland is the magnificent harbour, with spacious docks and wharfs, and sheltered from every wind except that from the south-west. Continuous railways have

been opened from Bombay to Calcutta and Madras, on the east coast, and to the north-western frontiers of India. Enjoying such extraordinary advantages, this seaport has lately risen to a very high state of prosperity. In the extent of its commerce and the number of its population, it already ranks as the second city of the peninsula. Indeed, it bids fair soon to take the first place, so unrivalled is its position for trade with Europe. Little did the Portuguese know the value of the gift they were parting with, when in 1661 they ceded this city to Charles II. of England, to make up a handsome dowry for his bride, the Infanta Catherine.

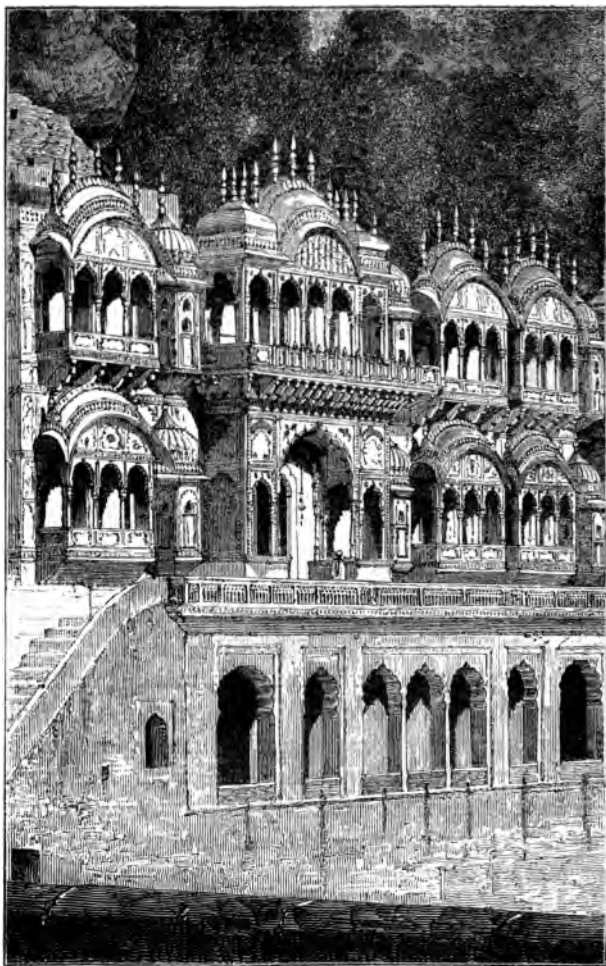
The city contains some handsome buildings, mostly of European architecture. A stranger fresh from England is, however, most delighted with the novel and picturesque appearance of the streets, for in the East everybody is not clothed, as in our great smoky towns, in monotonous sombre garments. The larger Indian cities are crowded with people of different races, and present an indescribable variety of costumes, in which light colours are mingled with richer and darker ones ; while in strange contrast with these gay dresses are the scanty garments of the labouring classes, consisting only of a cloth wrapped round their loins.

To the south-east of Bombay, and only about seventy miles distant, is the city of *Poona*, famous in history as having once been the southern capital of the Mahrattas, a Hindoo people who wrested extensive territories from the Mogul sovereigns during the decline of their empire. Poona is situated on the highlands of the Deccan, about two thousand feet above the sea, and to the east of the Western Ghauts. It is consequently cooler

than Bombay, and receives less rain. For these reasons this city has been chosen as the head-quarters of the Bombay army, and is largely frequented by Europeans during the most oppressive time of the year.

After visiting Poona the traveller generally retraces his steps to Bombay, and proceeding northwards, arrives at the ancient seaport of *Surat*. Here, in 1615, the East India Company obtained a grant of land in which to build a trading station, which may be said to have been their first secure footing in India. Afterwards, for nearly two centuries, Surat continued to be the seat of a flourishing trade with Europe. Now, however, most of its former commerce passes through the more commodious harbour of Bombay.

From Surat the best course for a visitor to follow is a northern one, and then, leaving the Bombay Presidency, he enters the group of native States Rajpootana. included in the province of *Rajpootana*. The western portion of this region is a sandy waste, forming part of the great Indian Desert, but the eastern districts are inhabited by a branch of the Hindoo race called Rajpoots. They are very warlike, and many of them have enlisted in the native regiments of the British Government. *Jeypoor*, the capital of one of the Rajpoot States, is celebrated for its curious buildings, and near to it is one of the gigantic fortified palaces which are among the most remarkable sights of India. This one is perched upon a hillside overlooking a romantic valley. Bishop Heber, who had visited the finest palaces of both Europe and India, declares that for wild beauty of situation, for the richness of the marble carving, and for the number of fanciful apartments, he had seen



INDIAN TEMPLE.

nothing to which it could be compared. As he wandered through its long succession of silent courts, and dim vaulted chambers, he was constantly reminded of the enchanted castles of which he had read in the story-books of his childhood.

On leaving Rajpootana, the traveller generally turns eastwards to one of the great British territories of the northern plains, to which has been given the name of the *North-west Provinces*. This territory is remarkable alike for its dense population, wonderful fertility, and famous cities.

North-west
Provinces
and city of
Agra.

Near the frontier which separates it from Rajpootana, and on the river Jumna, stands the city of *Agra*, once a capital of the Mogul Empire. In the days of its glory it enclosed an area of eleven square miles, but only half this space is now occupied, while over the remainder of it are scattered the ruins of the past. Here the stranger forms some idea of the lavish luxury and magnificence of the Mogul dynasty. Among the many splendid monuments of their rule is a fortress containing a palace, mosque, spacious courts and fountains, all of them of surpassing architectural beauty. Many of the royal apartments, the mosque and courts, are built of marble richly carved and inlaid with coloured stones. But even more celebrated is the Taj-Mahal, a tomb built by one of the emperors for his wife. This building is of polished white marble, and is surmounted by a dome rising to the height of 250 feet. It is chiefly remarkable for the lavish way in which it is ornamented with carvings, inscriptions, representations of flowers and other designs, worked with inlaid stones of various colours, some of which, adorning the interior, are of

great value. Though only of moderate size, the Taj-Mahal is so elaborately ornamented that it is said to have employed the labour of 20,000 men for a period of twenty-two years.

Leaving for a time the North-West Provinces, the stranger generally proceeds northwards into another large British territory, which extends to the Punjab and cities of Delhi, Simla, Lahore, Peshawur. Himalaya Mountains and includes the *Punjab*. In the south-eastern part of it is *Delhi*, the latest capital of the Mogul Empire. No place in the whole world reminds us more feelingly of the instability of all earthly kingdoms. In sight of the more modern city stretches a vast expanse of mouldering ruins, covering an area of forty-five square miles, where city after city has risen, upon the site of its predecessors. The oldest of these fallen cities is supposed to have been built about fifteen hundred years before the birth of Christ by the Aryans, when they were gradually advancing down the basin of the Jumna.

Side by side with the prim new buildings of modern Delhi are the far more imposing ones of the Mogul dynasty. Among the latter are stately mosques, intended to hand down to future generations the memories of their founders, and another great fortress containing a palace, which in its luxurious magnificence rivals and very much resembles that at Agra. Over the lofty gateway leading to the marble audience-hall is a Persian inscription meaning, 'If there be a heaven upon earth, it is this, it is this.'

In the midst of this city, still so richly stored with the emblems of their past greatness, was played the last scene in the eventful history of the Mogul sove-

reigns. For more than a century before the fall of the dynasty, its dominions had been fast passing into other hands. In 1827 the reigning Emperor was deprived of all authority by the British Government, and became a mere pensioner on its bounty. Thirty years later the last of the dynasty was dragged by the British troops from a large mosque which had been erected to serve as the tomb of one of his predecessors, and in which he had taken refuge, and was transported as a criminal to a foreign land for the treacherous part he had played during the Sepoy mutinies.

In the northern part of the Punjab are several other places well worth a visit. Among them is *Simla*, a station which stands on a spur of the Himalayas, 7,000 feet above the sea, and which is a favourite resort of Europeans during the hot weather. West of Simla lies *Lahore*, a very ancient city, which was of enormous size in the prosperous days of the Mogul Empire. Still further west, in the north-western extremity of India, is *Peshawur*, a large garrison town of great value to the British Government, as it is only eighteen miles distant from the Indian entrance to the Khyber Pass, one of the few gates through which an invader could enter India from the north.

LESSON XIX.

STATES AND CITIES OF INDIA (*continued*).

SOUTH-WEST of the Punjab and west of Rajpootana is *Scinde*, a British territory occupying the lower basin of the Indus River. The rainfall in this province is

very scanty, and large parts of it are deserts, but on each bank of the river are very fertile tracts, watered by artificial means. On the coast is *Kurrachee*, Scinde and seaport of Kurrachee. which, next to Bombay, is the largest and most rising seaport on the west coast.

Scinde is not, however, a very interesting region to the ordinary traveller, who, leaving it unvisited, generally crosses the northern frontier of the Punjab Kashmir. into *Kashmir*. This country, encircled by the Himalaya ranges, includes the upper basin of the Indus. The climate is healthy and bracing. For several months of the year the ground is covered with snow, but in summer the weather is very hot. As the valleys are well watered and fertile, the products of the soil are abundant and varied, including many European trees and plants. The people are almost as fair as the inhabitants of Southern Europe, the men being strong, and the women celebrated for their beauty. A love of trade characterises the natives, many of whom are also very skilful artisans. The shawls of Kashmir, made from the hair of a goat found in Thibet, are much valued for their softness and warmth.

Before leaving Kashmir, every one who has time to do so takes the opportunity of exploring the wonders and beauties of the Himalayas. But as they Himalayas. rise from the sub-tropical plains of India to heights many thousand feet above the level of perpetual snow, they present so many varieties of scenery and of vegetation, that we cannot attempt to describe them in our limited space.

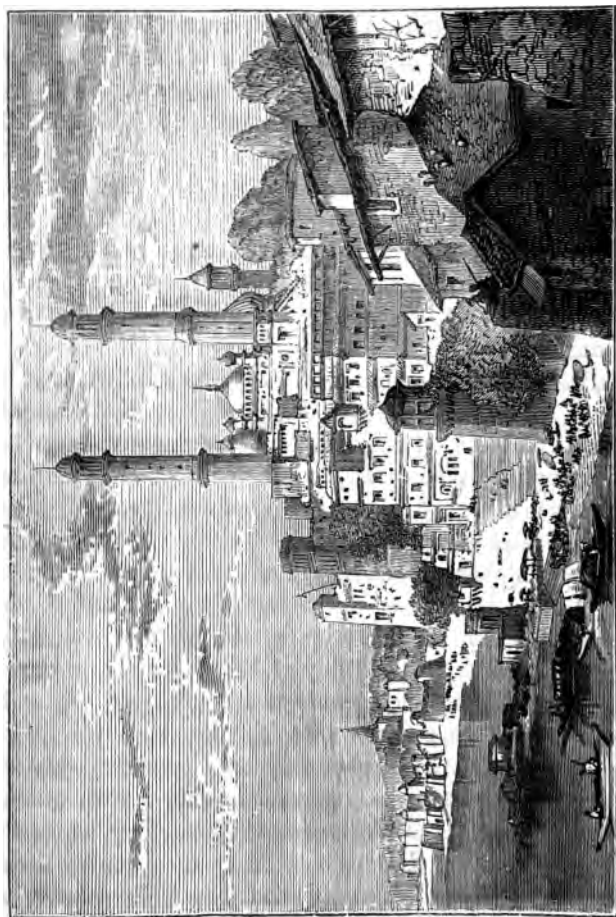
From Kashmir the course generally followed is through the Punjab to the North-West Provinces, to

which we must therefore once more turn our attention. In this division of India, besides Agra, already described, there are many other large and very ancient cities. We shall name the most important ones in the order in which they lie on the highway to the east coast. They are *Lucknow*, the capital of Oude—which until the middle of this century remained a powerful kingdom, under Mohammedan rule—*Cawnpore*, *Allahabad*, and *Benares*. The three latter are situated on the Ganges, and are all places with a considerable trade, especially Allahabad, which is most conveniently placed for commerce at the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna.

Cities of
Lucknow,
Cawnpore,
Allahabad,
and Benares,
in the
North-West
Provinces.

Benares requires more than a passing notice, as it is the oldest and one of the most striking and curious cities of India. By the Hindoos it is considered also to be a very holy place. It rises from the curved bank of the river in the form of an amphitheatre, and presents a most picturesque view of richly carved Hindoo temples, Mohammedan mosques, and slender turrets called minarets; some of the latter are 230 feet high, and from them the followers of the Prophet are daily summoned to prayer. Many of the streets are so narrow that no wheeled conveyance can pass through them. Here, in contrast with the humblest dwellings of the poor, may be seen the large rambling houses of the wealthy natives, irregular in shape, with quaint verandas and small richly-carved projecting windows, the general effect being so striking that one of them reminded Bishop Heber of the beautiful palaces of Venice.

In Benares the superstitions of the Hindoos are displayed in the most whimsical forms. Pilgrims,



BENARES.

bound by vows to painful penances, crowd the streets. Some of these misguided people have so long held one arm in the same position that it has become immovable, while others have clenched their hands until the nails grew out through the backs of them. Tame bulls, sacred to one of the gods, and too lazy to move out of the way of the passer-by, block the narrow streets; and monkeys, sacred to another god, gambol on the roofs of the temples and houses, or drop down into the streets, to snatch any tempting food which may be left within their reach. But woe betide the rash person who roughly strikes any of these pampered creatures, as he would probably be at once mobbed for such an outrage.

Among the striking sights of Benares are the scores of worshippers who daily flock to the handsome flights of steps on the side of the river, hoping to wash their sins away in its waters, while occasionally devotees drown themselves in the river to secure their salvation. Thus superstition and commerce combine to draw people from all parts of India to this city, the population of which exceeds 175,000.

A short distance from Benares is the frontier which divides the North-West Provinces from another of the largest British territories, known as the *Lower Provinces*. They extend to the east coast, and include the lower basins of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, which are among the most fertile and populous districts in India. This political division is still often spoken of as *Bengal*, the name of an enormous tract of country which occupies the greater portion of it.

Lower Pro-
vinces and
Calcutta.

Within the Lower Provinces are several ancient cities. Their importance, however, is now overshadowed by that of *Calcutta*, the chief seat of the British Government, and a port which, in the extent and value of its commerce, surpasses every other port in Asia. It stands upon the left bank of the Hoogly, one of the many streams into which the Ganges is divided ere its waters flow into the Delta. *Calcutta* is about a hundred miles from the coast, so that all its foreign trade passes through this river, the navigation of which is rather difficult in consequence of the strong currents and shifting sandbanks. The shipping at *Calcutta* lies in the river, on each side of which are long lines of quays, where vessels innumerable, from every civilised country in the world, are constantly taking in and discharging their cargoes.

Calcutta has grown under the British rule from a small village to its present size, and contains few fine native buildings; nor are the European ones in any way very remarkable. The population, including the suburbs on both sides of the river, in 1872 numbered nearly 900,000.

Assam is another valuable British territory. It occupies the north-eastern extremity of India, and, as it includes part of the basin of the Brahmaputra, is watered by many of the tributary streams of that river. Moreover, as the soil is fertile, the products of *Assam* are both numerous and abundant. The most valuable one is tea, of which large quantities are used in Great Britain, to mix with and flavour the teas of China.

The *Deccan* attracts the attention of travellers far

less than the parts of India we have described. We must not, however, pass it over in silence.

The southern extremity of the Deccan and a large tract of territory on the east coast form a division of India known as the *Madras Presidency*, which in its political character and government corresponds to the Presidency of Bombay. The capital is Madras. In the absence of any good seaport nearer than Calcutta this city has become a shipping place, but, unfortunately, it lacks any kind of harbour. The vessels lie in an open roadstead, so that, when heavy gales are expected, the sailors have to weigh their anchors in hot haste, and stand out to sea to avoid shipwreck.

The Madras
Presidency
and city of
Madras.

The interior of the Deccan is occupied by some very large States. In the north of it is the British territory known as the *Central Provinces* and the native State of *Berar*. To the south of these provinces is *Hyderabad*, an enormous native State under a Mohammedan dynasty. The capital, also called Hyderabad, is the largest city of the Deccan. A little south of this kingdom is *Mysore*, another large native State.

Central Pro-
vinces, and
States of
Berar, Hy-
derabad, and
Mysore.

These southern states are interesting as the scenes of some of the most gallant and successful efforts of our countrymen to found the British rule in India. Here Clive first displayed his daring character and brilliant military talents; and in Mysore may still be seen the deserted fortress of Seringapatam, in the siege of which the great Duke of Wellington served during the early part of his career.

Railways have now so largely taken the place of

rivers in determining the course of trade and the spread of civilisation in a country, that they rank among its most important features. In no part of the world have they led to greater social and commercial changes than in India. The main line runs through the entire length of the northern plains from Calcutta to Peshawur, and lines branch off from it at Allahabad, Agra, and Delhi to Bombay, and at Lahore to Kurrachée. Another great line connects Bombay and Madras. Besides these there are many others of secondary importance, and more are daily being laid.

The principal articles of export from the four largest ports of India are as follows:—

Exports from the four largest ports of India. *Calcutta.*—Tea, wheat, rice, opium, cotton, wool, linseed, indigo, and jute.
Bombay.—Cotton, wheat, various oil seeds, and wool.

Madras.—Cotton, indigo, coffee, sugar, skins, and hides.

Kurrachée.—Wheat and oil seeds.

LESSON XX.

BRITISH BURMAH AND CEYLON.

BRITISH BURMAH lies upon the east of the Bay of Bengal, extending as a narrow strip of coast territory from the head of that bay to the Isthmus of Kra. It is divided into three portions: Arakan in the north, Pegu in the centre, and Tenasserim in the south.

In Arakan, the mountains run parallel to the coast and at no great distance from it, and being clothed with thick forests, present a fine appearance towards the sea. Between them and the shore lies a belt of low coast-land, very marshy and often covered with jungle.

Pegu is low and flat, being in fact a delta formed of the earth brought down year after year by a great river called the Irawady, and through this delta of mud and sand the river finds its way to the sea by numerous channels. The whole district is laid under water by the floods of the wet summer season, and is thus admirably adapted for the growth of rice which is consequently produced here in immense quantities. Rangoon, the principal town of British Burmah, is in this division, standing upon the Irawady. It has outstripped *Pegu*, the ancient capital, and has now a railway extending northward to Prome, a town not far from the southern frontier of native Burmah.

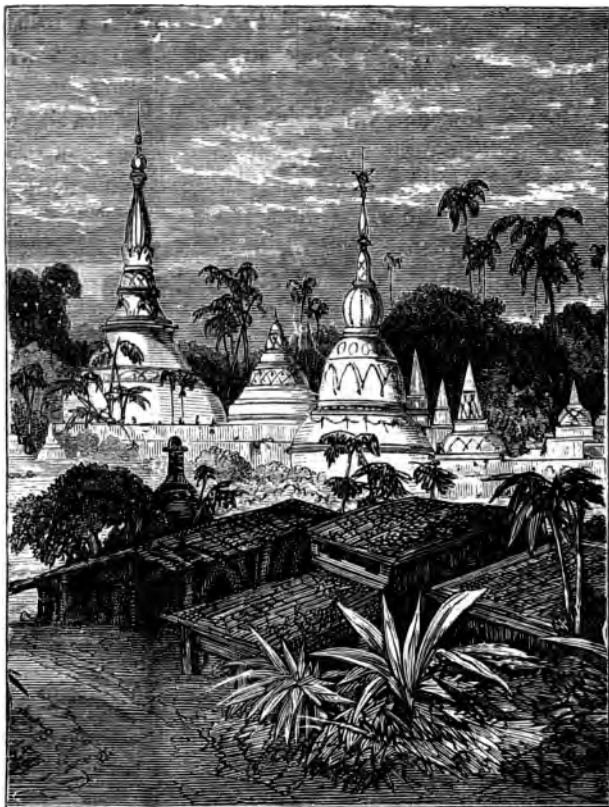
Tenasserim is a hilly district, separated from Siam upon the east partly by mountain ranges parallel to the coast, and partly by the river Salwen. It was within the present century that the East India Company took possession of the coast of Burmah, and so deprived the native state of all direct access to the sea.

The territory is governed by a chief commissioner who is directly under the Viceroy of India.

Besides the rice which is produced so enormously on the plains, *teak*, a hard, close-grained wood, now extensively used in shipbuilding, is brought down in great quantities from the forests that cover the hills.

The people of the country belong to the Mongolian

race, and are idle, light-hearted, and simple in their manners. With hardly any exception they are Buddhists,



VIEW IN BRITISH BURMAH.

and share with the natives of Ceylon the honour of having more nearly preserved the original teaching

of Buddha than any other of his followers have done. We may notice as an instance of their anxiety to render strict obedience to his commands, that amongst his precepts is one which forbids the taking of the life of animals; and to this day, the Burmese may be seen, when the wet season comes to an end, standing in the little pools of water which are left behind by the retiring floods, and carefully seizing the gasping fish which they place in buckets of water and carry down to the sea. Education with them is, up to a certain point, almost universal among the men. Each youth is required to study in one of the religious houses of the Buddhists for three years, and the accounts we read of the chatter in the old monasteries which are used for schools as the boys try to learn their lessons by heart bring to mind the lower classes of an English elementary school.

Ceylon, an island about the same size as Ireland, is situated at the southern extremity of India, from which it is separated by a broad strait, which, however, is not navigable for large ships, owing to a dangerous coral reef that runs across it.

From a bordering belt of low plains the island rises in the interior to a great height, Adam's Peak being one of the most conspicuous summits.

As Ceylon lies near to the equator, its temperature is high on the sea-coast, but in the interior the great height of the land makes the climate there perhaps the most charming in the world. The lower ranges consist of well-clothed green slopes; 'luxuriant forests overhung by creepers cover the higher hills; tree-ferns and gigantic rhododendrons next appear, and the inner-

most peaks shoot up bare and rocky in fantastic forms.' Rain is brought both by the north-east winds of winter which travel over the Bay of Bengal, and by the south-west summer currents which come from the Indian Ocean..

For many years past, the most important plant under cultivation has been coffee, of which enormous plantations still cover the upland valleys and mountain slopes. Owing, however, to the repeated failure of the coffee crops in recent years, the cultivation of tea and of the cinchona bark—from which quinine is made—has very largely been substituted, and there is every promise that in future these will likewise prove most valuable products. Ceylon has long been celebrated for its precious stones.

Colombo, the capital of the island, lies upon the west coast. It is an important port, and is now connected by railway with the ancient chief town, Kandy, which is situated in the centre of the island. Point de Galle, in the extreme south-west, is the next most important port, being the great calling-place of vessels trading farther east.

Ceylon does not form part of the Indian empire, but is administered by a governor directly responsible to the Queen.¹

¹ For particulars of the minor Asiatic possessions of the British Empire, see Section 2 of Appendix B.

LESSON XXI.

PHYSICAL FEATURES AND CLIMATE OF SOUTH AFRICA.

THE British possessions in Africa consist (1) of a group of colonies in the southern and temperate parts of the continent; and (2) of some tropical settlements on the west coast, and in the neighbouring islands. The former is by far the most important division, because of its position, extent, and suitability as a field of emigration for our over-crowded home population. The west-coast possessions, being generally very unhealthy for Europeans, contain few English residents, and are chiefly valuable to us for commerce with the interior.

The physical features of South Africa are similar in character to those which mark the whole African continent. The interior of Africa consists of a vast Relief. expanse of table-lands, which is enclosed by an almost continuous outer edge of mountains varying much in height. In parts this outer edge descends to the sea by a succession of terraces; in other parts it is separated from the coast by intervening stretches of low plains.

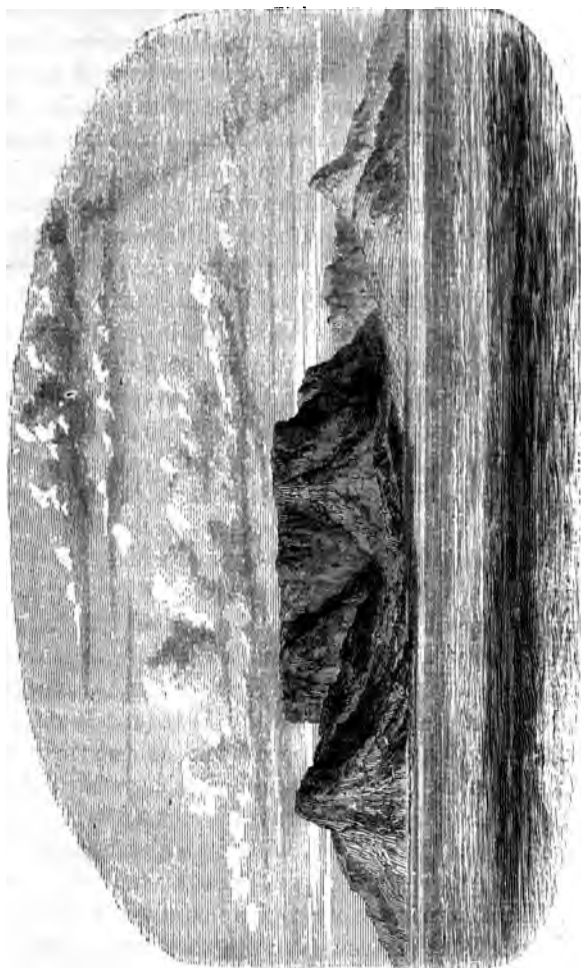
Let us now look on the map at that portion of the continent lying south of the tropic of Capricorn, and more particularly known as South Africa. Here we see at a glance the interior table-lands occupying the central regions enclosed on the east and south by high mountain chains, and on the west by lower and less continuous

ranges. The general slope of the central table-lands is from east to west, as we see at once from the course of the chief rivers ; or in other words, the inner land of South Africa slants gradually away from the high eastern towards the low western hills. Between the mountains and the sea, on the east coast are descending terraces and low plains ; on the south coast the mountains come down nearly to the water's edge, while on the west coast they are separated from the Atlantic Ocean by low flat plains.

The most important of the South African ranges are the Drakenberg Mountains, some of which run parallel to the east coast, and the summits of which are over 10,000 feet high ; and the Nieuwveld Range, which crosses the continent from east to west, and attains an average height of about 7,000 feet. South of the Nieuwveld Mountains lies the Great Karroo, a lofty table-land equal in area to the whole of Scotland, and between this upland plain and the sea are found two parallel mountain ranges, neither of which are as high as the Nieuwveld Mountains.

Besides the heights which we have mentioned, there is in the extreme western corner of the continent a little isolated group of hills, forming the well-known promontory of the Cape of Good Hope, and remarkable as containing the curious Table Mountain, 3,500 feet high. It is so named from the peculiar flatness of the summit. Sometimes this eminence is shrouded by a mist drifted from the sea, and the people then say that it is covered with the tablecloth.

The position of the mountain ranges on the outer edge of the country has a very important influence on



CAPE OF GOOD HOPE AND TABLE MOUNTAINS.

the rainfall of South Africa. The chief rain-bearing winds are—(1) those which blow during the summer months westwards from the Indian Ocean across the continent, and are known as the south-east monsoons; and (2) those which during the winter months blow inland from the Atlantic Ocean over the south-western corner of the country. In both instances these winds, laden with vapour, come at once into contact with mountain ranges on which most of their moisture is discharged. Thus they pass into the interior as comparatively dry winds, and the further inland they advance the drier they become, so that in the very heart of the country we find a wide region known as the Kalahari Desert, where rain scarcely ever falls, except in occasional thunder showers.

A country with a scanty rainfall over a large part of the interior, as is the case with South Africa, cannot supply the water necessary to feed large navigable rivers. The streams which flow down the maritime slopes to the sea are merely occasional mountain torrents, while those that rise in the interior have generally little water, and are interrupted by cataracts and rapids, where they descend from the high lands of the interior to the lower lands on the coast. It is true that if we look at the map we shall find it scored over with innumerable watercourses, but the only really large stream of South Africa is the *Orange River*. This river, with its chief affluent the Vaal, drains the western slopes of the Drakenberg Mountains. Here there is a more copious supply of water than anywhere else in the country; for these are the ranges

South
African
rivers.

with which the south-east monsoons come first in contact, and where they deposit their largest supplies of moisture. Flowing westward, the Orange River traverses the interior of this part of the continent, and finally, after a course of 900 miles, empties itself into the Atlantic Ocean. Below the point where it is joined by the Vaal, it receives as tributaries no other permanent rivers, and thus its volume of water decreases as it approaches the sea. Even this, the largest of South African streams, is in places so shallow, and so much interrupted by rapids or waterfalls, that it is useless for the purposes of navigation.

The *Olifants River*, which flows westwards from the Great Karroo to the Atlantic, is chiefly remarkable for the fact that in times of flood its overflow enriches the soil near its mouth with a thick deposit of mud very favourable to the production of grain. In the south-east the *Great Fish River* is one of the largest of the periodical streams in which South Africa abounds. At times after a heavy fall of rain, the water rises twenty or thirty feet in a few hours, while at others it scarcely flows at all, but lies stagnating in the deeper hollows of its bed.

The climate of South Africa is on the whole clear, cool, and bracing; for even in those regions bordering on the Tropics the elevation of the ground
Climate. tempers the heat. Further south the temperature of the successive seasons is very much the same as in France, or other countries of Central Europe. It must of course be borne in mind that the seasons are exactly the reverse of ours—the summer in South Africa corre-



sponding in time with our winter, and the winter with our summer. The eastern and inland districts are at times subject to terrific thunderstorms.

LESSON XXII.

NATIVE POPULATION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

AT the time when the first European settlers established themselves in South Africa this part of the continent was occupied by three races of savages, known respectively as the Bantus, the Hottentots, and the **Bushmen**.

The eastern half of this region, where lie the most fertile districts, was in the possession of the Bantus, and here they still form the majority of the population. We may add that they also occupy the greatest part of the territory lying between South Africa and the Equator.

Though so widely spread over the continent, and divided into many tribes, all the various dialects of the race have certain peculiarities in common, which show that they are derived from the same mother tongue. By the Europeans the Bantus of South Africa are spoken of as forming four divisions; namely, the Zulus and the East Coast Kaffirs, both of whom inhabit the narrow belt of land between the Drakenberg Mountains and the Indian Ocean; and the Basutos and Bechuanas, who inhabit regions to the west of that high range. It is necessary, however, to explain that the term Kaffir is often used by the colonists to describe

all those Bantu tribes with whom they have intercourse, the name being the Arabic word for an infidel.

The East Coast tribes are very superior to all the others both in bodily strength and intelligence. Their



ZULUS.

hair, like that of so many of the African people, is woolly ; their skins are of a dark reddish colour ; their figures, which are of full average height, are often very graceful, while their well-shaped foreheads show at a glance that they cannot be wanting in brain.

The chiefs, who exercise despotic power over their subjects, are licentious and cruel. But though the people possess some of the worst faults of barbarous races, the wisest colonists, who perceive beneath their failings the traces of a better nature, expect these natives in time to become a very respectable part of the population. They are open to the influence of religious teaching, by which a considerable number have already been converted to Christianity. In arguments, of which they are extremely fond, they often show themselves to be very quick-witted.

Moreover, the courage and endurance displayed by the East Coast tribes in their wars with the well-armed Europeans have on several occasions excited the enthusiastic admiration of their enemies. During the heat of battle they are merciless and fierce, but when they are not moved by anger or fear they are light-hearted and good-natured.

Polygamy prevails throughout all the Bantu tribes, some of the chiefs having so many wives that they do not know the older ones even by sight.

Their huts, which resemble large beehives, are about fourteen feet in diameter, without either windows or chimneys, and are entered by a doorway only about three feet high. Their villages, called kraals, are also circular in shape; a high wooden fence, which serves as a protection against robbers and wild beasts, encloses the kraal, the huts being ranged around the central space, where all the cattle—which form the chief wealth of the people—are collected at night.

Many of the Bantu tribes possess considerable skill

in the forging and working of iron, as well as in the art of making pottery.

The most cruel practices which disgrace the race are the consequences of their ignorance and superstition. For instance, when a chief dies, a number of persons are often buried alive in his grave to supply him with servants or wives in the next world. Again, the Bantus, like so many other ignorant persons, believe in witchcraft. If their cattle are attacked by a plague, or if some one dies from a cause they do not understand, the natives think that the misfortune has been brought about by the sorcery of one of their neighbours. Then the most absurd and fanciful means are taken to discover the offender. Every tribe possesses a witch doctor, who is sometimes a fanatic, but more often a clever, cruel impostor, who professes to find out a witch by smelling the suspected person, or by some other trick. Both men and women are liable to be accused of this dreaded crime, so that hundreds of persons are every year declared to be guilty of it, and are first tortured and then killed. Frequently malicious persons compass the death of those they hate by charging them with it.

The preceding description of the manners and customs of the East Coast Bantus is generally true of the Bechuana and Basuto tribes; but, as already stated, the latter are inferior to their eastern countrymen in bodily strength and intelligence, and are less warlike.

On the arrival of the early European settlers, the western districts, between the Kalahari Desert and the Atlantic Ocean and the south-western coast districts, were in the possession of the Hottentots. These natives are a weak, rather helpless race, much

inferior to the Bantus, by whom they had been gradually driven from the more fertile homes they once occupied in the south-eastern part of the continent. In the appearance of their faces, and the muddy yellow colour of their skins, they strongly resemble the Chinese. Before they had any intercourse with Europeans, they were all in a most degraded state, without any ideas of religion or government. Some of them have in later times been converted to Christianity, wear European clothes, and support themselves by cattle-breeding. They are also employed by the colonists as herdsmen and servants.

The Bushmen have, from the foundation of the European colonies to the present time, inhabited the dreary wastes of the Kalahari Desert. Having like the Bushmen, Hottentots been driven by the Bantus from the eastern lands, they were obliged to take refuge in their present barren home, where they have great difficulty in finding sufficient food to save themselves from starvation. Naturally they are much given to pilfering the cattle and other property of their more fortunate neighbours. We may truly say that 'their hand is against every man, and every man's hand is against them.' They are small in size and very ugly, but wiry, hardy, and capable of undergoing great fatigue and long fasts.

Some of the tribes in the most desolate parts of the desert are so degraded that they can barely express the simplest ideas by speech, and in order to do so have to use strange gestures.

But though fallen so low in the world, the poor little Bushmen retain some touching remembrances of happier days. They are fond of music, and use some simple

instruments to satisfy this taste. Nor are they wholly ignorant of other arts. The sides of the caves they live in are frequently engraved with rough outlines of men and animals. In the chase and in warfare they use arrows smeared with very deadly poisons, one of which they procure from the juice of a kind of cactus tree, and another from the inside of a grub.

In the next lesson we shall find that in the midst of this motley collection of native races, Europeans in great numbers have found new homes.

LESSON XXIII.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

A VAST desert, stretching across Africa from east to west, separates from the rest of the continent a narrow belt of fertile land bordering upon the Mediterranean Sea. The countries forming this belt have from the earliest ages occupied an important place in the history of the civilised world. But with the exception of these regions, the whole of Africa remained until the fifteenth century an unknown land to the nations of Europe.

In the early part of that century the Portuguese began to explore the western coast of the continent. They gradually extended their discoveries until at length, in 1487, one of their navigators, Bartholomew Diaz, rounded the southern point of the continent, which he called the Cape of Storms,

Southern
Africa un-
known till
the fifteenth
century.

Discovery of
the Cape of
Good Hope.

but which his king changed to the now well-known name—the Cape of Good Hope. Ten years later his countryman, Vasco di Gama, as already stated, discovered that beyond this Cape lay a continuous waterway to India. These enterprising explorers made no attempt to take possession of this point, for at that time they were only anxious to reach the eastern lands of Asia.

The Dutch were the first Europeans to make a settlement at the Cape about the middle of the seventeenth century. Then the Dutch East India Company, seeing the value of possessing a station where their ships might take in fresh stores on the voyage eastwards, sent out a small body of emigrants to colonise the Cape peninsula. From this point the settlers gradually extended their dominion eastward to the Great Fish River, and northward to the great chain of mountains running across the continent.

In 1795, when Holland had been annexed to the French Republic, the Dutch colonists threw off their allegiance to the mother country and declared their independence. Soon afterwards the British Government, then at war with France, sent an expedition to take possession of the colony, but on the return of peace it was restored to Holland. On the renewal of the war the British Government again took possession of the colony, and it has since remained, under the name of *Cape Colony*, a part of the empire. Its limits, however, have been widely extended since its original acquisition by this country.

The Dutch settlers, or, as they are termed, the Boers, who still form a large portion of the white population

Growth of
European
colonies.

of the Colony, had been discontented even while they remained under the control of their mother country, and became still more so under the rule of the British Government; especially when it began to protect the natives from their harsh treatment. Accustomed to look upon the coloured races as property that they could deal with as they pleased, they regarded with no friendly feelings the interference of the Government on behalf of these unfortunate people. In 1834 they were deeply offended by the emancipation of the slaves—a class which included not only a large number of natives, but also the descendants of the negroes and Malays, who had been imported into the country by the Dutch before the law of 1807 put an end to the foreign slave trade.

So, discontented with British rule, a great number of Dutch families moved northwards across the Orange River and founded the two republics of the *Orange River Free State* and *Natal*; one west, the other east, of the Drakenberg Mountains. But they were only allowed to retain their independence for a few years. In 1842 the British Government annexed Natal, and at a later date the Orange River Free State.

A revolt subsequently broke out among the Boers. It was, however, promptly suppressed; but their leader Pretorius, rather than submit to British authority, led a party of his countrymen still further north, across the Vaal River, where they established a government of their own in the state now known as the *Transvaal*.

Shortly afterwards England agreed to abandon the Orange River Free State to the Boer settlers, under whom it still remains.

In 1877 the British Government took possession of the Transvaal, in the belief that its people desired the change, and that they would value the protection it would afford them against the attacks of the natives. This idea proved to be a mistaken one, and after a few years of British rule the Transvaal Boers rose up in arms and demanded their independence. After fighting valiantly, their claim to self-government was admitted by England, on condition that they should acknowledge the supremacy of the British Crown in their dealings with the surrounding states and native tribes.

At the same time that the Boers were founding the Orange River Free State and Natal, a number of Griquas had also left the Cape Colony. Griqua is a name bestowed upon a mixed race born of Dutch fathers and Hottentot mothers. These emigrants founded the state of *Griqualand West*, which lies west of the Orange River Free State, and a little later on, that of *Griqualand East*, which lies south of Natal. The discovery of very valuable diamond-fields in Griqualand West, and the consequent immigration into the country of great numbers of Englishmen, led to its annexation to Cape Colony, and Griqualand East was also afterwards, at the wish of the inhabitants themselves, included in that possession.

From what has been said we see that the European colonies in South Africa now include, first, two colonies under British rule—namely, the Cape Colony and Natal; and secondly, two independent Dutch Republics, the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal. These states occupy the whole of southern and eastern South Africa, or, in other words, all the most

Summary.

fertile regions of the country. West of the Transvaal and north of the Cape Colony there is still a wide territory which remains independent, but it is for the most part a waste and desolate region, forming part of the Kalahari Desert and the sandy coast-lands north of the mouth of the Orange River.

It must not be supposed that the native rulers always tamely submitted to the loss of the territory converted into European colonies. The Hottentots, indeed, were unable to offer any resistance, and some of the Bantu tribes voluntarily placed themselves under British rule and protection. The case was, however, very different with some other tribes, and especially the daring ones on the east coast. With these, both the Dutch and the English settlers have from time to time been engaged in some very bloody wars. The most memorable one in which the English were engaged was that with the Zulus under their king Cetewayo. In it the natives showed great bravery, and very skilfully surprised a British regiment, most of whom were slain.

LESSON XXIV.

CAPE COLONY.

CAPE COLONY includes the whole of the southern extremity of the African continent, with the exception of the small independent region on the east coast, Boundaries and extent. lying south of Natal. Westwards it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, southwards and eastwards by the

Indian Ocean, while its northern boundary follows to a great extent the line of the Orange River. In the provinces of Griqualand West and of Basutoland its frontier is, however, advanced north of this stream. The coast of the colony, although very irregular, affords, like the whole continent generally, few naturally good harbours, most of those which exist having been made safe by the construction of breakwaters and other works. Among the chief bays we may mention Algoa Bay in the south-eastern, and Table Bay and False Bay in the south-western corners of the continent; while the most notable headlands are the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Agulhas, the most southerly point of Africa.

The area of Cape Colony is 230,000 square miles: hence it is about twice as large as the British Isles. Of this extent only a small proportion is arable, the remainder being occupied by mountains and table-lands, which in many cases afford excellent pasturage, but are unfit for agriculture.

In consequence of the deficient rainfall, Cape Colony is very scantily wooded; but in the maritime and eastern districts, where the rainfall, although not sufficient for the support of forest trees, is more abundant, flowering plants are varied and beautiful. Especially famous among the vegetable productions of these regions are the Cape heaths, of which there are innumerable kinds, which, when in bloom, present the appearance of a gorgeous and many-coloured carpet.

Elsewhere, in the inner mountain slopes, in the Great Karroo, and on the central table-lands vegetation is chiefly confined to grasses and bulbous plants. During the dry season they lie hidden and uninjured beneath

the parched soil, but after two or three days of rain they spring up and cover the ground with a sheet of verdure and bright flowers. In the most arid regions only those kinds of plants are found which, like cacti, can store up a large supply of moisture, and thus maintain themselves for a long period without rain.

Wheat is the chief product of the agricultural districts, but maize, barley, and oats are also largely grown. Timber-trees and the chief European fruit-trees have almost all been introduced, and flourish. The cultivation of the vine in the south-western district deserves special mention.

Cape Colony abounded in former times with large animals, such as the rhinoceros, the giraffe, the buffalo, and all the larger forms of the antelope tribe.

Animals.

These large mammals are now, however, almost extinct within the country. The lion has also retreated before the advance of the white man. Quaggas, zebras, the spring-bok, and other small antelopes may still be met with in the northern plains, but the only wild creatures of considerable size which abound in the civilised districts are the jackal, the hyena, the Cape leopard, and the wolf. The wild ostrich is now rarely met with except in the desert regions, but there are in the Colony large farms where the bird is reared for the sake of its valuable feathers. Reptiles are rare here as in all dry countries, and the Cape rivers are also remarkably deficient in eatable fish.

The domestic animals are mostly those with which we are familiar in England. Sheep-farming is one of the chief occupations of the Dutch farmers, and wool is the most valuable export of the country. The wealth

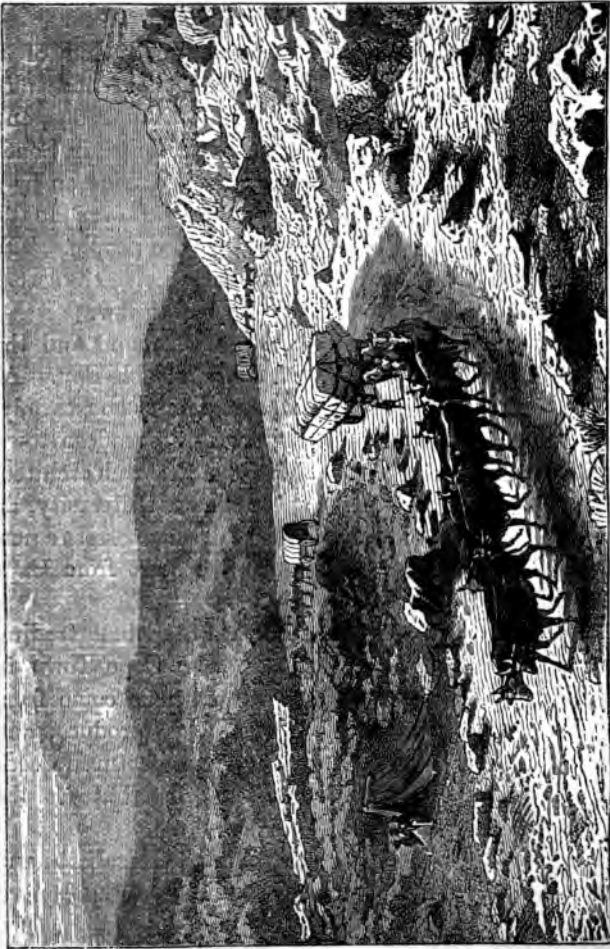
of the natives consists in their cattle, which are used not only as beasts of burden, but as current coin, even a wife being purchased in exchange for a certain number of oxen.

The scarcity of fuel has hitherto prevented the mineral wealth of the Colony from being developed to any great extent. Copper mines are successfully worked in the district south of the mouth of the Orange River ; and Griqualand West contains the famous diamond-fields, where large numbers of valuable gems are frequently unearthed. The Star of Africa, the largest diamond ever found there, was sold for over 11,000*l*. before being cut. Coal has been found in the Nieuw-veld Mountains, but the distance of this range from the coast is too great to make the discovery at present useful.

Cape Colony can never, from its nature, be very densely peopled. There are, as we have seen, whole areas which are unfit for agriculture, and others that cannot even support a settled pastoral population ; while the scarcity of fuel will probably prevent the country from becoming the seat of great manufacturing industries. The country, however, can support several millions of inhabitants more than it at present possesses.

At the last census the population was about one million, or between four and five persons to every square mile. In this Colony is to be seen perhaps as motley a collection of races as can be found on the whole face of the globe. Among the European colonists are English, Dutch, French, Germans, and Portuguese. Among the natives are Hottentots, Bantus, and a few Bushmen.

There are also many inhabitants of mixed races, and a few descendants of the negro and Malay slaves, formerly



TRAVELLING TO THE GOLD-FIELDS.

brought into the Colony by the Dutch. The number of the natives is nearly double that of the Europeans. Most of the natives dress like the colonists and have learnt to speak a little English and Dutch.

Cape Colony is under the administration of a governor, who is appointed by the Queen, and also Govern-
ment. acts as commander-in-chief of the troops, and as Her Majesty's High Commissioner in South Africa. The legislation of the Colony is carried on by a Parliament consisting of an Upper and a Lower House, the members of both being elected by the people. The acts of this Parliament must, however, receive the assent of the British Parliament before becoming law.

Cape Town is the seat of the Government and the capital of the Colony, and is situated on Table Bay. At first it consisted of a fort and a few houses only, Chief towns. whereas it is now a flourishing modern town from which all traces of the old flat-roofed Dutch architecture are rapidly disappearing. It has a University, an Art Gallery, Botanic Gardens, and will soon possess a new House of Parliament. Two railways start from Cape Town into the interior.

Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay, is the great trading town of the Colony, and ranks next to Cape Town in population. Hither the transport waggons come from the interior laden with wool and other produce, and hence they set out again bearing manufactured goods and foreign commodities which they distribute to the inland villages and farms.

Graham's Town, north-east of Port Elizabeth, and united to it by a railway, is the capital of the eastern provinces.

Graaf Reynet, lying inland in a province of the same name, is the capital of the midland provinces.

The chief exports of Cape Colony are wool, the annual value of which is about 3,000,000*l.*, diamonds, copper, and ostrich feathers. The chief imports are manufactured goods, sugar, and tobacco.

LESSON XXV.

NATAL.

NATAL is little larger than the kingdom of Greece. Northwards it is bounded by Zululand, westwards by the Drakenberg Mountains, eastwards by the Indian Ocean, and southwards by the district commonly known as Kaffirland, and by the north-eastern projection of Cape Colony. It is a better watered country than the sister colony, for it receives a plentiful supply of the moisture with which the winds from the Indian Ocean are so heavily laden before they pass over the Drakenberg Mountains. Its streams draining the maritime slopes of the Drakenberg are abundantly supplied with water throughout the year, and are very valuable for purposes of irrigation. They are not, however, navigable, as they descend in torrents and cascades from the mountains across the intervening terraces to the sea.

The abundance of the water supply makes Natal one of the most fertile regions of South Africa, while the differences of elevation cause great variety in its vege-

tation. In the low-lying coast-lands the climate is almost tropical in character, and here coffee, sugar, and other productions characteristic of the warmer regions of the globe are grown. Further inland on the central terraces European grains are the chief objects of cultivation, while the lofty plateaus fringing the Drakenberg range furnish excellent pasturage. Forests containing valuable timber-trees clothe the deep valleys with which the country is intersected, and parts of the coast region are also densely wooded.

Vegetation.

As in Cape Colony, so in Natal, the larger wild beasts are now rapidly disappearing, and herds of horses and cattle, and flocks of sheep, range undisturbed over districts which were once the abode of the elephant and the lion.

Animal life.

It is believed that the Drakenberg Mountains contain great mineral riches, but as yet very few mines are worked in Natal.

Mineral wealth.

Though the colony is generally fertile, there are two causes which retard its prosperity; namely, difficulty of internal communication, and scarcity of labour. The rivers cannot be used as waterways, the ground is rugged, and there are few roads. Towards the west the Drakenberg Mountains, crossed only by a few steep and dangerous passes, constitute a very formidable barrier between the colony and the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal: otherwise Natal would be the natural outlet for the trade of the two Boer republics. In consequence of these difficulties the transport trade is carried on almost entirely by means of waggons drawn by teams of oxen, which although slower are more sure-footed than horses. A

Obstacles to prosperity.

railway is now in process of construction, but as yet it extends only a few miles inland from the coast. The second difficulty, 'scarcity of labour,' arises to a great extent from the character of the natives, who form a very large proportion of the population. Their wants are few, and they are consequently so lazy that it is almost impossible to incite them to work: hence the colonists have been obliged to import coolies from India to help in the sugar plantations and on the farms.

The population of Natal numbers about 320,000, of whom not a quarter are of European descent.
Population. The majority of the natives are Kaffirs.

The only towns of importance in Natal are Durban and Pietermaritzburg. *Durban* is a large port standing on the only harbour which the colony possesses. It is better known as Port Natal.
Chief towns. *Pietermaritzburg*, which lies inland, is the capital of the colony.

Wool, ivory, hides, and sugar are the chief exports, and manufactured goods the chief imports, of the colony.¹
Exports and imports.

¹ For a description of the possessions of the British Empire on the coast of Guinea, see Section 3 of Appendix B. In the Section 4 of this Appendix will be found a short description of Ascension, St. Helena, Mauritius, Rodriguez, and the Seychelles, all of them islands often associated with the continent of Africa, though very distant from it.

LESSON XXVI.

**THE DISCOVERY AND COLONISATION OF
AMERICA.**

THE fifteenth century was truly an age of wonders to the nations of Europe. In that period, as we have already read, the Portuguese explored the west coast of Africa, discovered the vast extent of that continent, and found that round its southern point lay an uninterrupted water-way to the southern peninsulas of Asia. But towards the end of the century a far more astonishing and unexpected discovery was made.

Discovery and colonisation of America.

In the year 1492 Christopher Columbus, with a fleet of only three small vessels, two of which were open boats, set out from Spain on that famous voyage which led to the discovery of America. Its object was to find a way across the ocean from the western shores of Europe to the eastern shores of Asia. Little did he dream, however, that before him lay a vast new world, in many ways richer and fairer than the one which he was leaving behind him. Nor did he in his first voyage discover that continent itself, but only an outlying group of islands which he named the West Indies. Altogether, Columbus made four voyages across the Atlantic Ocean. It was only in the course of the third that he reached the north-eastern shores of South America, which he believed to be another large island, until as he followed the coast he came to the mouth of the mighty Orinoco River. Then, as he saw the great flood of fresh water rolling into the ocean, the truth

burst upon him that it could not flow from any island, but that a wide continent must be the parent of so magnificent a river. Between the time of the first and second voyages of Columbus, the eastern coast of North America had been reached and partly explored by John Cabot in a vessel equipped by Henry VII. of England.

We can easily imagine the excitement created in Europe by the news of these discoveries. It spread far and wide through all ranks of men. Princes began to dream of new empires to be won, and countless riches to be secured, not by hard fighting with one another, but at the expense of a race of savages, too ignorant and helpless to resist the invasion of their lands, or to protect their abundant treasures of gold and silver. Missionaries prepared themselves for the task of gathering multitudes of heathens into the Christian fold. Poor men saw before them new chances of making a fortune; and the spirit of the old Danish and Norse pirates woke again in their English descendants.

The task of discovery once commenced was eagerly carried on. Within a century of the first voyage of Columbus, nearly the whole coast region of South America had been conquered, and to some extent colonised, by the Spaniards and Portuguese, who also laid claim to the partially explored tracts of the interior. In Central America, the great and civilised empire of Mexico had been deprived of its native princes, and rendered subject to Spain; and here, as in South America, Spanish governors and adventurers were occupied in plundering and oppressing the natives, and in sending home to the mother country vessels laden with their ill-gotten gains.

The advance of the Europeans in the northern half of the continent was less rapid, and although the whole eastern coast had been explored by the end of the sixteenth century, it was not until the seventeenth, in the reign of our King James I., that the modern history of North America can be said to have really begun.

It was in the first quarter of this century that the French founded the city of Quebec, on the river St. Lawrence, and began to extend their dominions along that stream. The Dutch also about the same time established a colony on the Hudson River, and built the city of New Amsterdam, now known as New York.

Lastly, at this period was formed the first permanent English settlement along the east coast. In 1606 a trading company established a station on the banks of the James River, in what is now the State of Virginia. In 1620 a little band of emigrants settled on the shores of Plymouth Bay, a part of which has since become the State of Massachusetts.

The colonists of Plymouth Bay are renowned in history as the 'Pilgrim Fathers.' Unlike their brother settlers in Virginia, it was not the hope of gain, but the love of religion, which led the Pilgrim Fathers to cross the ocean. In their own country their forms of worship and their doctrines were condemned by the State, and to preserve their liberty of conscience, they forsook their native homes to face all the dangers of an unknown land. So great were the hardships they had at first to endure, that in the course of three months their number was reduced one half. They were, however, soon joined by others, whom religious persecution had driven away from their native country. Plymouth

Bay now became the centre from which colonisation spread over the surrounding regions, and several independent settlements, collectively known as the New England States, were established along the east coast. In 1664 the Dutch settlements on the Hudson River were surrendered to England, and by the end of the 17th century the whole of the east coast, between the French possessions on the St. Lawrence and the peninsula of Florida, was included in the British Empire. Westwards our colonies were bounded by the French possessions along the Mississippi River. In the far north the desolate lands round the great Hudson's Bay had been granted by King Charles II. of England to a company which had the sole right of trading there.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century almost the whole of the New World, with the exception of the unexplored westerly regions of North America, was in the possession of four European powers. Spain and Portugal held Southern and Central America. England ruled supreme along the east coast of North America, and the great fur countries round Hudson's Bay yielded rich profits to an English company. France was in possession of the lower basin of the St. Lawrence, and of the great chain of lakes connected with that stream, and also laid claim to the valley of the Mississippi.

Unfortunately in no single instance did the mother countries understand how to treat their colonies. They regarded with distrust the children who had gone out to struggle with nature in the Western wilds, and the growth of the young settlements was hindered by the jealous rule of the

The New
World in the
eighteenth
century.

Treatment
of colonies
by the
mother
countries.

home Governments. Spain and Portugal thought of their foreign dominions only as mines from which wealth was to be wrung. France saw in her possessions in the New World only a new field for her selfish ambition; one in which she could wound her great English rival; while England strove to monopolise the trade of her settlements, and to grow rich at their expense.

Results of home policy. This short-sighted, ungenerous conduct led to disastrous results. The vast possessions of Spain, early in the present century, revolted from her rule and gained their independence. The Portuguese kingdom of Brazil made itself independent of the mother country. France lost her colonies on the St. Lawrence to England. Lastly, England, by her misgovernment, drove her own thirteen colonies into a revolt, which, after a bloody war, ended in the establishment of their independence under the name of the United States of America. England, however, retained Canada, which she had won from France at the point of the sword.

Besides Canada, the other possessions secured at various times and still retained by Great Britain in the New World are—Newfoundland, the Bermudas, Jamaica, and other of the West India Islands. British Honduras, in Central America, has ranked as an English colony since 1862, having been previously to that date only a dependency of Jamaica. In South America we possess a part of the great district of Guiana on the north-east coast.

LESSON XXVII.

**THE DOMINION OF CANADA: ITS BOUNDARIES
AND PHYSICAL FEATURES.**

LET us now refer to the map, and try to form some idea of the extent and boundaries of the Canadian Dominion. It occupies all that part of the Position and boundaries. American continent which lies north of 49° N. lat., and of the chain of the great lakes, with the exception of Newfoundland, the territory of Alaska on the north-western Pacific coast which belongs to the United States, and the unexplored regions of the Arctic Ocean. We must observe that a great part of the surface of this Dominion, especially towards the north-east, consists of islands.

The boundaries of Canada, except on a part of the southern and western sides, are natural ones. On the north we find the Arctic Ocean, Baffin Bay, and Davis Straits.

Connected with the great sheets of water forming the northern boundary are innumerable bays, gulfs, and straits, which either deeply penetrate the land or break it up into archipelagoes and large islands. In one part the great Hudson Bay, connected by Hudson Strait with the Atlantic, forms a magnificent inland sea almost rivalling in size the Mediterranean. It bears the name of its great discoverer Henry Hudson, and it was amidst its waters that his mutinous crew turned him adrift,

with his little son and seven faithful men, in a small boat. No further tidings of the brave navigator ever reached the world.

The east side of the Dominion is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, and the west side by the Pacific Ocean and the territory of Alaska, a possession of the United States.

The southern boundary of the Dominion is the north frontier of the United States, and was settled by treaty between that country and Great Britain. It runs first at some distance south of the mouth of the St. Lawrence, then along its southern shores, through the great chain of lakes, and finally westwards along the 49th parallel of latitude to the Pacific.

When we examine the relief of the Dominion two facts strike us. The first is, that although Eastern

Canada is hilly, it is only in the far west
Relief.

that the country contains really lofty mountains. The second fact is, that the Dominion does not possess a single separate mountain system of its own. The western mountains form part of the vast range which extends along the western regions of the whole continent, and is often spoken of as the backbone of America; while the eastern hills found on the southern side of the St. Lawrence estuary are part of a range which stretches almost as far south as the Gulf of Mexico.

The western ranges of North America are called the Rocky Mountains. Within British territory they
Western mountain ranges. extend for two thousand miles from north to south, and include two or more parallel ranges, of which the most western is about one



PASS IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

hundred miles from the Pacific Ocean. The highest summits of the Rocky Mountains are found in the south-western portion of the Canadian Dominion. Here in a cluster are the lofty peaks of Mounts Murchison, Hooker, and Brown—the last-named being about 16,000 feet high, and all of them covered with perpetual snow. As the range approaches the Arctic Ocean it decreases very much in height, but occupies a greater width, and the intervening valleys are more extensive.

The mountains which lie nearest to the Pacific coast form part of a chain which extends far south into the United States, and is known as the Cascade range, but attains its greatest height in the northern part of the Canadian Dominion, where it culminates in Mount St. Elias, 15,000 feet high. The Cascade Mountains and Rocky Mountains to the east of them enclose between them a lofty table-land, intersected by the smaller ranges of the system and furrowed by deep valleys or gorges, clothed for the most part with magnificent forests. In spite of the height of the bordering chains, this picturesque region is comparatively easy of access. Wide, deep-passes occur at intervals between the mountains, through which it is possible to construct roads or railways. There are also numerous passes by which the traveller may cross either on horseback or on foot without difficulty. Thus the mountains of Western Canada do not, like so many others, offer impassable obstacles to internal intercourse.

The hills and uplands of Eastern Canada south of the St. Lawrence are merely the northerly spurs and offshoots of the great highland mass of the Alleghanies,

the chief part of which lies in the United States. The basin of the St. Lawrence on the north side is bounded by the highlands which form the central plateaus of this part of the country. The average height of the hills found in this region is about 2,000 feet.

Eastern hills
a continuation
of the
Alleghanies.

LESSON XXVIII.

DOMINION OF CANADA: ITS RIVERS AND LAKES.

No country surpasses Canada in the magnificence of its water-ways. The rainfall is abundant, and the climate for a large part of the year is so cool that the evaporation of the moisture is slow. In winter it is stored in the deep snows which cover nearly the whole land, and which melt so slowly on the higher mountain summits that they afford throughout the summer a continuous supply of water to many large rivers. Even some of the tributary streams are larger than several of the great rivers of Europe.

The most important of the rivers of Canada is the *St. Lawrence*, which flows from a chain of lakes exceeding in extent and volume of water any other series of lakes in the world, and which, as before stated, form part of the boundary line between Canada and the United States. It has been estimated that the basin of the *St. Lawrence*, including the lakes which form its head

Rivers and
lakes.

waters, contains more than half the fresh water of the globe.

The principal lakes in this vast system are known as Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario ; Lake Superior alone covering an area of 31,000 square miles.

The northern shores of Superior and Huron belong to Canada, the southern to the United States. Lake Michigan lies entirely within the boundaries of the last-named country. Taken together, the extent of the three lakes is nearly equal to that of the island of Great Britain. Several are, in proportion to their expanse, shallow, and there is in Scotland and Switzerland many a lake which exceeds in depth some of these extensive sheets of water. A river, which at one point expands into a small lake, connects Lake Huron with Lake Erie, the fourth in the chain of great lakes ; while another river, the *Niagara*, joins Erie with Lake Ontario.

The Niagara is famous throughout the world for its magnificent waterfall. It leaves Erie at first as a broad and tranquil stream, but the fall of the ground is very great between the two lakes, and the current becomes more rapid with every foot of descent. Further on the banks contract ; and the river, forced into a narrow sloping bed, dashes foaming through it until at last, about twenty-two miles below Erie, the surging mass of water, separated by Goat Island, plunges with a roar of thunder over two broad ledges of precipitous rock. The two cataracts thus formed are named respectively the Horseshoe and the Goat Island Falls. The depth of the falls is 180 feet. Though there are in the world several loftier cataracts than

those of Niagara, yet in no other is the quantity of water precipitated so great. The roar of the tumbling mass is heard thirty miles off, while for several miles around the earth trembles with the shock, and the columns of spray with its rainbow tints can be seen at a distance of many miles.

Lake Ontario is the last in the chain of great lakes. From it the St. Lawrence flows out in an ever-widening and deepening stream, forming here and there lake-like expansions. Finally it broadens into an estuary, and empties itself through the Gulf of St. Lawrence into the Atlantic Ocean.

On its way from Ontario to the ocean the river receives numerous tributaries, the largest of which is the *Ottawa*, entering it from the north-west.

The five lakes, the connecting channels or streams, and the St. Lawrence form together one of the most splendid water-ways in the world. There are of course several points—as, for example, at the Niagara Falls—where navigation is interrupted by the existence of cataracts, as also by shoals and rapids, but these natural obstacles have been overcome by the construction of canals. At the present time the basin of this great river affords a continuous navigable line of over 2,000 miles. Many of the tributaries entering the lakes and rivers are also navigable throughout a great part of their respective courses. Unfortunately the severe winter keeps these fine water-ways ice-bound for many months in the year.

Among the numerous other large rivers of the Dominion we have only space to mention here the *Fraser*, the *Mackenzie*, the *Saskatchewan*, and the

Columbia. The Fraser flows westwards from the Rocky Mountains into the Pacific, and is the chief stream of British Columbia. It is navigable in parts. The Mackenzie flows into the Arctic Ocean, and is formed by the junction of two large streams, one of which drains the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains, while the other draws its supplies from several large lakes found in the north-western region, such as the Great Slave Lake and the Great Bear Lake, which almost rival in size the lakes of the St. Lawrence basin. Although broad and deep enough for navigation, the Mackenzie is practically useless, as it is closed during the greater part of the year by ice. The Saskatchewan consists at first of two streams, the Upper and the Lower Saskatchewan, both of which are fed by the snows of the Rocky Mountains. Flowing eastwards they finally unite in one channel, and after a long and winding course enter Lake Winnipeg. From its mouth upwards the Saskatchewan is navigable for 1,000 miles. The country included in its basin is one of the richest agricultural regions of the Dominion, and offers splendid advantages to the emigrant. The Columbia River is the largest American river flowing into the Pacific Ocean, and rises in the western lakes of the Dominion. Its length is 1,400 miles, but only about half of it passes through British territory.

LESSON XXIX.

**DOMINION OF CANADA: ITS CLIMATE,
VEGETATION, AND ANIMALS.**

THE Dominion of Canada, extending, as it does, from beyond the Arctic Circle to the latitude of the South of France, and thus covering an enormous area, must of necessity possess striking varieties of climate. There are, besides, numerous local causes determining these differences.

East of the Rocky Mountains the Canadian winters are very long and cold, most of the country being for several months covered with snow. The severity and length of this season lead many of us to believe that the Dominion must be situated much further north than Great Britain, where the frosts are so much shorter. But we fall into this error because we forget that Western Europe is swept by the warm current of the Gulf Stream, whereas the north-eastern shores of Canada are washed by an Arctic current, which pours its freezing waters into the northern bays, carrying immense icebergs on its surface. A comparison of the latitudes of certain districts in Canada with others in Europe will enable us to understand the influence of these causes. The Arctic current makes Labrador, which lies between the same latitudes as Scotland, a land of desolation, uninhabited by civilised men. Again, while the St. Lawrence, which flows in latitudes further south than those of London, is icebound for several months every

year, the Thames is so seldom frozen that such an occurrence is remembered as one of the most remarkable events of a century. In the southern parts of the Dominion, beyond the influence of the northern icebergs and currents, the winter is, however, not so cold. The summers in Canada are, like the winters, longer than in England, and are much hotter, the intervening periods of spring and autumnal weather being very short and subject to sudden changes. The causes of the warmth of the summers are, first, that during the height of the season the sky is often very clear and cloudless, and the heat of the sun consequently great; and secondly, that the interior at this time of year is swept by south winds heated in their passage over the dry central regions of the United States.

West of the Rocky Mountains, on the other hand, the shores of the province of British Columbia are washed by a warm south-easterly current; the climate is consequently temperate, being very much like that of England, though the summer is generally rather warmer than ours.

The west winds from the Pacific Ocean supply the west coast regions with an abundant rainfall; and on the western ranges of the Rocky Mountains, where the moisture is condensed, it is very heavy. Throughout almost all the rest of the Dominion the rainfall is sufficient for the purposes of agriculture. The supplies in some districts are derived from the Atlantic Ocean; and in others, during the early summer, from the moisture carried by south winds through the central regions of the continent from the Gulfs of



CANADIAN FOREST, WITH INDIAN TENTS AND CANOES.

Mexico and California. The evaporation from the great chain of lakes also contributes to the rainfall of the neighbouring districts.

The surface of Canada falls into three divisions, namely, the barren lands, the prairies, and the forest lands. The barren lands include the dreary regions of the north, the coast of Labrador, the loftier peaks, the chasms and ravines of the Rocky Mountains, and one or two tracts where the soil is stony or sandy. The prairie country stretches eastwards from the Rocky Mountains across the vast north-west territory, which once formed the happy hunting-ground of the Hudson Bay Company. Here and there it is interspersed with groves, or crossed by belts of forest, but for the most part it consists of vast level grassy stretches, which are now rapidly changing into corn-fields under the hands of the ever-increasing stream of emigrants. Lake Winnipeg, and further to the north Lake Athabasca, may be regarded as forming the central points of this region. Parts of the prairie country are very fertile. The Red River and the Saskatchewan flowing into Lake Winnipeg, and the Peace River flowing into Athabasca, drain lands so rich that they require no manure, and the soil is capable of bearing successive crops of wheat without becoming exhausted. Where the country has not been brought under cultivation, or is unfit for agriculture, the prairie furnishes pasturage sufficient to support innumerable herds of cattle.

The first settlers in Canada found the country overgrown with a thick cover of forest. Great clearings have been made in these woodlands, and flourishing towns

now stand on spots which were once the haunts only of the Indian and of wild beasts. There still remain, however, in the Dominion many thousands of square miles of forest, in which may be seen stately trees exceeding 200 feet in height.

Forest lands.

Among the most characteristic animals of the Dominion is the bison, or American buffalo, which belongs to the ox family. It is still found in large herds on the prairies, though now that so much of the country has been cultivated its numbers have greatly decreased. The flesh of the buffalo is excellent food, and its skin serves as the warmest of blankets. Another animal common in Canada is the elk, the largest of the deer family—its height to the shoulders sometimes equalling that of a full-sized English cart-horse. The flesh of this beast resembles venison, and its skin is used for a variety of purposes. The reindeer inhabits the Arctic regions of North America, but on this continent it has never, as in Europe, been domesticated. In the Rocky Mountains are the haunts of the grizzly bear, which, with the exception of the polar bear, is the largest, strongest, and most carnivorous of the bear family.

But far the most interesting of all the animals of Canada is the beaver. It frequents the neighbourhood of lakes and rivers, and delights to spend a great deal of time in the water, where it finds several of the plants on which it feeds. To satisfy these tastes the beavers build dams across the course of rivers, and thus often change a valley into a lake. The teeth of these creatures are so sharp and strong that they can gnaw through the trunk of a large tree and divide it into

pieces of moderate size. The logs and branches they thus obtain are moved by them to the water's edge, for which purpose they work together in company, and then so place the timber as to form the framework of the dam, which is afterwards made watertight by stones, moss, and mud. Some of these dams are 300 yards long. More wonderful still is the fact that, with foresight worthy of a practised engineer, the dams are built with a bend against the current of the stream, so as the better to withstand its pressure. The fur of the beaver is very soft and silky, and in the early part of this century was so much used to cover hats in England that they were often called beavers.

Among the amphibious animals of the Dominion we must not omit the walrus, an enormous creature of the same family as the seals. It is of great value to the Esquimaux, who inhabit the Arctic regions of North America. The flesh supplies them with food, the tusks with the ivory for fish-hooks, the interior with material for fishing nets, and the skins with almost all their household articles. The common seals are also put to many uses by the Esquimaux, for where Nature is so niggardly, mankind have to make the most of her scanty gifts.

LESSON XXX.

CANADA : ITS POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND GOVERNMENT.

CANADA contains at the present time a population of more than four millions, of whom a small proportion are native Indians and Esquimaux, the rest consisting almost entirely of settlers of European descent.

The Indians, or red men, as they are sometimes called from the reddish-brown colour of their skins, are chiefly found in the north-western territories.

Indians. They are passionately fond of a wandering life and of hunting, for which their keen sense of sight, hearing, and smell well fit them, though in the use of guns they cannot rival the best English shots. One remarkable feature of their character is the power of bearing pain without wincing. In the time when tribal wars were common among them, and captives in battle were frequently put to horrible tortures, no cruelty daunted an Indian, or wrung from him a cry of pain.

For any kind of steady hard labour the Indians have an incurable dislike. As their hunting-grounds have been successively occupied by the Europeans, they have been driven further and further west, or have died either from diseases caught from the new comers, or of the drunken habits into which they have been led by the whisky and other fiery drinks first made known to them

by the settlers. The Government has tried to save a remnant of the race by collecting some of the tribes into settlements, or reservations, under the charge of Government officers, and missionaries are doing their



ESKIMAUX HUNTING THE WALRUS.

best to convert and educate them. But the habits and tastes of the fathers cling to the children. Most of the Indians continue very idle and restless under any restraints, and the efforts to civilise them have been only partially successful.

On the shores of the Arctic Ocean and along the north-eastern coasts live the race of the *Esquimaux*—
Esquimaux. a people very different in appearance from the Indians. They are short in stature, broad-shouldered, and remarkably hardy and strong. Their life is a very wandering one, chiefly spent in pursuit of the fur-bearing animals found in the far north, and in catching seals, whales, and other animals of the icy seas. In summer the *Esquimaux* live in skin tents, and in winter in huts built either of turf and bones, or of blocks of snow with a sheet of ice for a window. Notwithstanding the many hardships of their life, the *Esquimaux* seem contented with their lot. At least they make no attempt to settle in more southern latitudes.

Among the races of European descent settled in the Dominion, the British is the most largely represented, and gives a general tone to the character of
European settlers. the population. In Eastern, or what was formerly called Lower Canada, a large proportion of the inhabitants are of French descent. Germans, Scandinavians, Danes, and other representatives of European nationalities are also mingled with the general population; while in British Columbia Chinese and Japanese are also found.

For a long time, the larger British possessions in North America were separate countries united by no common tie except their allegiance to the
Union of the provinces into one Dominion. English Government. One vast territory stretching round Hudson Bay and northwards to the Arctic regions, and including the islands in that great inland sea, as well as part of the country ex-

tending westwards across the Rocky Mountains, was in the possession of a London company known as the Hudson Bay Company. It somewhat resembled the East India Company, and was engaged chiefly in carrying on a great trade in the furs supplied from its domains.

But in 1867 the two Canadas, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were united into one Dominion, to which a few years later all the British territories in North America, except Newfoundland, were added, the Hudson Bay Company receiving a very large sum of money for abandoning their rights.

Among the chief towns of the Dominion of Canada we may mention Halifax, Quebec, Montreal,
Chief towns. Ottawa, Toronto, Winnipeg, and Victoria.

Halifax is the capital of Nova Scotia, and is famous for its splendid harbour, capable of accommodating over a thousand vessels. When the great highway of the St. Lawrence is closed by ice during the winter months, Halifax is the only important port in Canada left open for the arrival and departure of shipping.

Quebec is a flourishing town on the St. Lawrence, and the capital of the province. It is the oldest city of the Dominion, and was the capital of the country during the French occupation. Protected by the Heights of Abraham, its position on the river was supposed to be impregnable, and for this reason it is called the Gibraltar of America. But in 1759, the gallant young British General, Wolfe, scaled the heights, and wrested the city from the French, though at the cost of his own life. Quebec is a busy place only in the summer months, when the timber ships take in their cargoes. At other times

it has the appearance of a city which has seen its best days.

Montreal, situated on the St. Lawrence, is an important port, and at once the largest and handsomest town in the Dominion. On account of its position it is the chief centre of canal and railroad communication with the eastern and western provinces. Ocean steamers ascend the St. Lawrence as far as this city, when the river is open.

Ottawa, on the river of the same name, in the province of Ontario, has grown up within the last few years from a lumberman's shanty to be the capital of the whole Dominion. It contains a very handsome House of Parliament, and many other fine public buildings. The timber trade has here one of its chief centres.

Toronto, beautifully situated on the north-western shore of Lake Ontario, is the chief, and by far the largest, town in the province of Ontario. It is the principal depôt of the agricultural produce of the province.

Winnipeg, near the southern shore of the lake of the same name, is the capital of the great wheat-growing province of Manitoba. About twenty years ago it contained only some 300 inhabitants, and was chiefly remarkable as forming the head-quarters of the Hudson Bay Company; but now its population exceeds 20,000, and every year it is rapidly increasing. The rich territory around was then merely a hunting-ground for the Indians and half-breeds; but the farmer now finds in the fertility of the soil an almost exhaustless source of agricultural wealth.

Victoria, situated on Vancouver Island, is the capital

of British Columbia, and the chief western port of the Dominion.

The system of Government of Canada is very much like that of the mother country. The Queen is represented by an officer called the Governor-General, who is appointed by her. He is assisted in the discharge of his duties by a Council, or Ministry, a Senate, and a House of Representatives. The Senate consists of members chosen for life by the Governor-General, and answers to our House of Lords. The House of Representatives is like our House of Commons. Its members are chosen by the people. The seat of the central government is Ottawa. Each province of the Dominion has also a Lieutenant-Governor and a Parliament to manage its own internal affairs.

LESSON XXXI.

CANADA: ITS CHIEF INDUSTRIES.

THE trade of Canada resembles that of most countries which are not yet largely populated. Her means of transport are somewhat limited, except near the great water-ways; but great efforts are now being made to extend railway communication from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Scarcity of population and limited transport prevent, as we have already read, manufacturing or mining industries from being extensively carried on. The present prosperity of the Dominion consequently depends chiefly on its animal and vegetable productions.

Causes limiting trade of Canada.

Farming, cutting down timber, or *lumbering*, as it is called, hunting, and fishing, are the principal occupations of the people.

Chief industries.

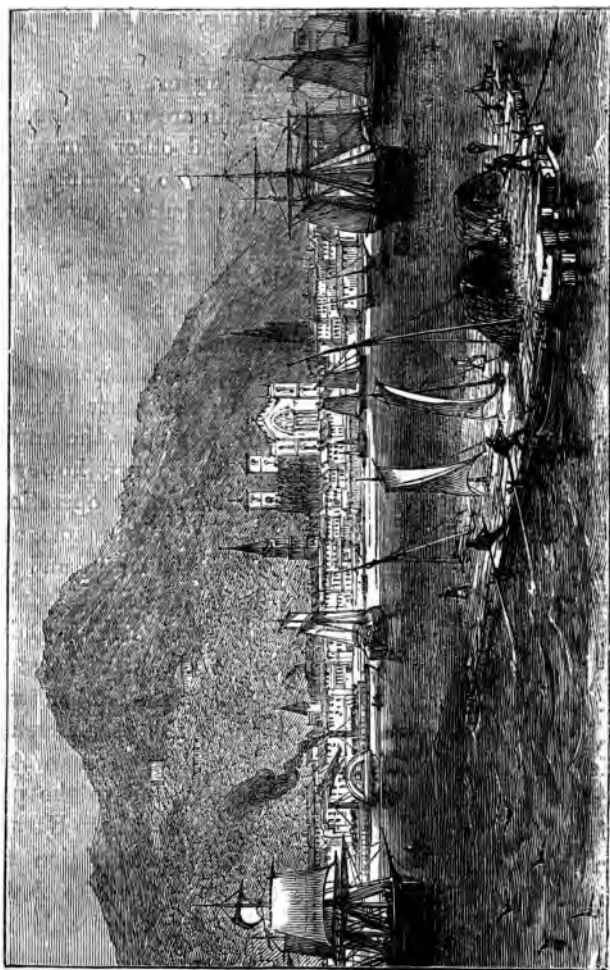
The farming produce is becoming every year more valuable. Large quantities of grain are now annually exported to the British and other European markets. Cattle-raising is also growing into a flourishing industry. Cattle, hides, butter, and cheese are important exports.

Farming.

Timber was formerly the most important product of Canada, and it is yet almost as valuable a commodity as any other. Roughly speaking, two-thirds of the total value of the exports is farming produce—the result of man's labour; the other third is obtained from the forest, and thus represents the uncultivated wealth of the country. This must, however, grow less and less every year, while farming operations are constantly being extended. Pine, oak, maple, and beech are the principal forest trees, the white and red pine especially being highly prized. British Columbia exports some very fine timber across the Pacific to China and Australia, and southwards to the west coast of South America; but the chief seat of the timber trade is in Eastern Canada, in the basin of the St. Lawrence. Here the great river and its tributaries serve as waterways, down which the wood can be floated to the port of Montreal, and thence shipped for transport to Europe. In the more inland provinces of the Dominion the difficulties of transport are too great to make timber a profitable export, and here the trees are only cut down to supply the wants of the settlers.

Forest products.

Winter is the usual season for felling trees. A



MONTREAL: ARRIVAL OF A TIMBER-RAFT.

camp, or log hut, is set up in the midst of the forest, and soon the frosty air rings with the sound of the woodman's axe, and then one by one the giant trees crash to the ground. When cleared of boughs they are taken to the nearest river and bound together in the form of rafts, which, on the advent of spring, are borne down by the stream to the nearest saw-mills to be shaped into logs, and thence again to the chief seaports, where ships receive them as cargo.

The work of lumbering is always exciting and frequently dangerous. The lumbermen engaged in conveying the rafts down to the ports have to remain night and day on the floating logs, and thus are obliged to build huts upon them for rest and shelter. We can easily understand what risks they must run from swollen streams and rapid currents, for when the rafts are dashed against dangerous banks, or, broken by the force of the running waters, the separate logs are driven one upon another.

Although now inferior in value to the agricultural or timber exports, furs still form a very important Canadian export, and the hunting of the fur animals

Furs. is one of the chief occupations of the native Indians. The fur trade may be said to have been the beginning of commerce throughout the wide territories of the Dominion. Nature provides animals inhabiting a cold climate with thicker and warmer coats than she bestows on those that dwell in warmer latitudes, and the vast forests and prairies of Canada swarmed with creatures clothed in the choicest and most valuable furs. As these skins were light and easily carried, they were in the early days of American colonisation almost the

only articles which could be conveyed across the pathless wilds. Thus this trade was the chief source of profit to the French during their occupation of Canada, while further north it gave rise to the Hudson Bay Company, established by Royal Charter in the days of our Charles II. The southern provinces of the Dominion are now enriched by the fruits of many industries; but the vast northern territories are still chiefly dependent on their furs.

On the whole, the great power of the Hudson Bay Company was well used. The forests of the northern wastes were gradually dotted over with trading posts. In these stations, within an enclosure strong enough to resist any attacks of the Indians, dwelt the servants of the Company. At the head of each fort was an officer, known either as chief trader or chief factor. Under him was a little army of clerks and apprentices. Hither the Indians came to trade, bringing with them valuable furs, and receiving in exchange blankets, muskets, and clothing. Once a year the Company's ships entered Hudson Bay with a cargo of these articles, and of supplies for the forts, and returned to England laden with furs, which were then sold by auction in London. As this produce was much more valuable than the goods which the Indians got in exchange, the Company made rich profits. At one time beaver skins were the most highly prized furs, but they declined in price after silk came to be used as a substitute for them in the manufacture of gentlemen's hats.

The fisheries of Canada are yearly increasing in value. Her sea-coasts swarm with fish of many kinds, while her inland waters, rivers and lakes, are full of salmon and trout.

Fisheries.

LESSON XXXII.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND—the largest island in the Atlantic—is the outpost of the continent of North America on the western side, being only 1,650 miles from the south-west of Ireland. On its north-western side it is separated from the coast of Labrador by the Strait of Belle Isle, which is ten miles wide in its narrowest part. A wider arm of the sea on the south-west divides it from Cape Breton. It therefore forms a sort of barrier to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The coast of the island is high and rocky on the eastern side, and deeply indented in most parts, its recesses affording good anchorage for the fishing fleets.

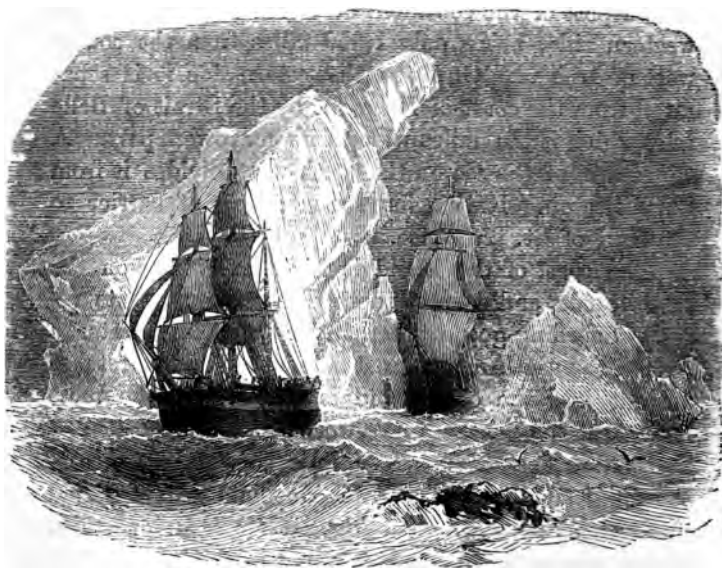
On the south-east a great submarine bank stretches far out into the ocean, and is the seat of the most important cod-fishery in the world.

The surface of Newfoundland consists of successive ranges of low hills and intermediate valleys, varied by streams, lakes, and swamps. More than one-third of the country is said to be covered by fresh water, but the rivers are not navigable for any great distance, and are, therefore, of little use as means of communication: consequently the island has never been thoroughly explored. The soil has been found fertile in some parts of the interior.

The climate, though generally healthy, is very severe in winter. The Strait of Belle Isle is then blocked by

ice, and a cold current, sometimes carrying immense masses of ice, flows southward from Labrador along the eastern coast, and chills the temperature. Off the south-eastern shores of the island this ice-current meets the warm waters of the Gulf Stream, and produces dense fogs, especially over the submarine

Climate and
vegetation.



WHALEERS AMONG ICEBERGS.

banks, which in consequence become a source of danger to shipping. The fogs, however, seldom penetrate far inland, as the prevailing winds are from the southwest, and keep the mists seawards. Spectators on shore frequently see the sky clear and bright overhead,

while far out at sea fogs are visible like a curtain. The summer season is generally pleasant.

The vegetation of the island is not striking. The lowlands near the rivers are in some places covered with forests of birch and pine, generally of small growth. Wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes thrive very well, but their cultivation is much limited. Most vegetable productions are imported from the neighbouring continent.

Newfoundland was discovered in 1497 by John Cabot, who was then in the service of Henry VII. of England. After several vain attempts at colonisation it was successfully settled by the English in the first half of the seventeenth century. The French afterwards attacked and took possession of the most important stations, but in 1713 the whole island was declared by treaty to belong to England. A couple of islets, however, were left to the French to serve as fishing posts.

The population of the island is but scanty, numbering only about 161,000. The inhabitants are confined to the coasts, but the great majority are settled in the peninsula of Avalon in the south-eastern corner of the island. Some native tribes of Indians once held the country, and a few are still said to exist in the interior.

Newfoundland is known to contain copper, silver, lead, and iron. Some of the mines near the coast are worked, but the want of means of communication with the interior is a hindrance to the development of this industry. A railway, however, is now in course of construction, and this, when opened, will no doubt increase the mining interest, as well as

Colonisation.

Population.

Industries and exports.

favour the growth of agricultural pursuits. At present the only important occupation of the people is fishing, extracting fish oils, and preparing fish for the American and European markets. The shores of the island abound with herring, mackerel, and other kinds of the finny tribe, but especially with immense shoals of cod. The 'banks' are the favourite haunts of the last-named fish, and there in the summer months hundreds of fishing-boats are daily seen busily engaged in reaping the rich harvest of the sea, and among these the great ocean steamers from Europe thread their course with difficulty in the frequently foggy weather. In the rivers salmon and trout are caught in large quantities, and off the northern coasts seals abound. From the cod and seal are obtained valuable oils which form most important articles of export.

Fisheries.

The government is administered by a governor, aided by a legislative council, and house of assembly chosen by the people. The shores of Labrador and the island of Anticosti in the Gulf of St. Lawrence are included in the jurisdiction of the Government of Newfoundland.

Government.

St. John's, situated in the peninsula of Avalon, is the capital of the island, and has a population of about 22,000. Its harbour is spacious, and well protected by cliffs and forts. Harbour Grace, on the west side of the same peninsula, is the next town of any importance.

Chief towns.

LESSON XXXIII.

LESSER BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.**The Bermudas.**

THE small group of the Bermuda Islands lies in the Atlantic Ocean, nearly 600 miles east of the United States, and north of the West Indies. The climate is delightful. The islands are very fertile, producing plants and fruits of both the temperate and tropical regions. The white settlers form only a small proportion of the population, the remainder consisting chiefly of negroes and people of mixed negro and European descent. The most profitable industry is the cultivation of early vegetables for the markets of New York and other American cities. The islands are governed by a governor and council, appointed by the Crown, and a legislative assembly chosen by the people.

The West Indies.

East of the Isthmus of Panama, and divided from it by the Caribbean Sea, stretches the long curving line of islands known as the Antilles. A little further north lies another large island group—that of the Bahamas. These islands taken together form the famous archipelago of the West Indies. At present the chief maritime countries of Western Europe have possessions in the West Indies. It is here, in Cuba and Porto Rico, that Spain still retains the last territories left to her out of her vast American conquests.

West Indies
under the
rule of vari-
ous European
Powers.

Many of the islands belong to Great Britain, others to France, Denmark, Holland, and Sweden. One island, Hayti or St. Domingo, is independent; and there is a small group which is part of the South American Republic of Venezuela. The British possessions, with which alone we have to deal, are Jamaica, Trinidad, the Bahamas, and fifteen other islands or groups of islands, the names of which it is not here necessary to give.

Jamaica, the largest island of the British West Indies, is well wooded and mountainous. It contains many small rivers, only one of which, however, is navigable, and this only for small craft, and to a distance inland of not more than thirty miles. The absence of deep unbroken water-ways has hitherto prevented the interior of the island from being settled, and hence the population is almost entirely confined to the coast regions. The construction of roads and railways would greatly add to the prosperity of the island.

Although Jamaica lies within the tropics its climate is so tempered by the mountains, that Europeans can live there comfortably. Its soil is very fertile. The forest trees yield dyes, spices, and valuable timber. The cocoa-nut palm and other palms thrive, and there are flourishing plantations of sugar, cocoa, coffee, and tobacco plants. European vegetables are cultivated in the hill country, while the guinea grass supports flocks of sheep and herds of cattle.

In spite, however, of these natural advantages, Jamaica is one of the least prosperous of the British settlements. Almost from the first moment of its discovery its history has been one of crime and mismanagement. The natives who welcomed the white

man so kindly died out within half a century from the effects of his cruelty. Negroes were then imported from Africa to supply their place, and do the work of the Spanish taskmasters. During the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, Jamaica was wrested from Spain by the English. For some time it was one of the great centres of the slave trade, and when the British Government abolished this traffic there were over 300,000 slaves in the island. Afterwards these slaves, in common with those in other British colonies, received their freedom. Unfortunately they were at the same time admitted to assist in the government, a privilege for the use of which they had not been trained. A time of great confusion followed. The white population were almost at open feud with the negroes and half-castes. At last, a dangerous insurrection broke out about the middle of the present century. Its energetic repression caused the native assembly itself to resign its powers. The island is now ruled by a governor and a council, the members of which are all appointed by the Crown. Since the change has been made, the prosperity of the island has increased, but it is still greatly hindered by the laziness of the negroes, who form by far the largest part of the population.

Kingston is the largest town, and the seat of the government. Spanish Town and Port Royal are two other important places.

The chief products are sugar and coffee, which are also the principal exports.

Trinidad lies close to the mainland, near the mouth of the Orinoco. It is a fertile island, but thinly populated, and is still to a great extent covered with forests.

It contains one of the great natural wonders of the world, a lake so thickly covered with floating pitch that a man can walk on its surface. Cocoa, sugar, coffee, and cotton are the chief products. The island was originally settled by the Spaniards, but passed into the hands of the British in the eighteenth century. 'Port of Spain' is the chief town.

The *Bahamas* are a numerous cluster, containing nearly 500 islands, of which only 20 are inhabited, the others being for the most part mere rocks. Sugar, cotton, maize, and pine-apples are the chief products of these islands.

British Honduras.

British Honduras consists of a little strip of territory in Central America, bordering on the Gulf of Honduras. It contains only one town, that of Belize, and is inhabited almost exclusively by negroes and the native Indians. Its possession is valuable for the sake of the mahogany and dye-woods which the country yields.

British Guiana.

Guiana is the name of a large territory occupying a part of the northern coast region of South America. It is divided into British, French, and Dutch Guiana. British Guiana is very fertile, and its vast forests yield most valuable timber. Here, as in so many other tropical countries, the European forms the smallest proportion of the population, the greatest portion being negroes, who do but little to develop the prosperity of the country. There are also a good many emigrants

from India and China. Sugar is the most important of the cultivated products. Rice is also largely grown. The seaport of Georgetown, on the River Demerara, is the capital of British Guiana.

The Falkland Islands.

The *Falkland Islands* form a group of two large and a number of smaller islands, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, near to the southern extremity of the American Continent. Cattle-raising and sheep-farming are the chief occupations of the settlers, who are mostly of Scotch or English descent. In their climate, scenery, and in the appearance of the towns, these islands bear a great resemblance to the Orkneys, or the Western Hebrides. Stanley, the capital, drives a flourishing trade in repairing ships, which often arrive there in a very damaged condition after making the stormy and dangerous passage round Cape Horn.

LESSON XXXIV.

OCEANIA.

In the Pacific Ocean are a multitude of island-groups and scattered islands, which extend from the Malay Peninsula far to the east, and form a division of the globe known as Oceania.

Extent and
general cha-
racter of
Oceania.

This region is, in many respects, very peculiar. It includes several islands far larger than any others in the world, the largest of them, called Australia, being of such vast extent that it is often spoken of as a separate continent.

Some of the islands are described by enthusiastic travellers as earthly paradises. The climate, tempered by the broad expanse of the surrounding ocean, is delightful all the year round, and the vegetation is so luxuriant that its beauty can scarcely be imagined by those who have not seen it; while the wants of the inhabitants are supplied with so little labour that their lives pass away in indolent ease, exempt from many of the cares and hardships to which the dwellers in other countries are exposed.

Nature is, however, occasionally seen in her most dreaded aspect on some of the loveliest isles of

Volcanic
eruptions
and earth-
quakes fre-
quent in
Oceania.

Oceania. Underground forces are ever at work, which break forth at times with such violence as in a few hours to change an entire island into a scene of terror and desolation.

Nearly the whole of the Malay Archipelago is subject to frightful earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. Many of these disasters have befallen the Archipelago within the present century, several having occurred even in the last few years. One of the most destructive eruptions was that of a mountain called Tomboro, in the island of Sumbawa. It took place in 1815, and continued nearly a week. The noise of the explosions was heard to a distance of 1,100 miles, and ashes were thrown up in such dense masses, that in places 300 miles away the darkness in the daytime exceeded that of a dark night. Streams of lava flowed in different directions from the crater to the sea, burying the forests and destroying everything in their course. Violent whirlwinds added to the horrors of the scene, and carried men, animals, and trees into the air. The town of

Tomboro sank beneath the sea, and remained permanently eighteen feet deep, where there had previously been dry land. The actual loss of life was never ascertained, but it was estimated that out of a population of 12,000 persons in the province of Tomboro, only twenty-six escaped.

So recently as 1883 a terrific eruption occurred at a volcanic island called Krakatoa, in the Straits of Sunda, between Java and Sumatra. During this catastrophe a large part of the island disappeared, while two new islands of considerable size made their appearance in the strait.

The part of Oceania, however, to which we must devote our especial attention is that known as *Australasia*, which includes the islands of Papua or New Guinea, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, New Ireland, and New Britain. In this region, of which the greater part lies within the Southern Temperate Zone, are some of the largest and most flourishing of the British colonies.

But even apart from the interest which attaches to Australasia as the home of so many of British descent, it is a region very remarkable for its natural products. The early explorers, as they visited its various islands, were amazed to see strange-looking animals, curious plants, and gigantic trees, altogether unlike any to be found elsewhere.

Almost as surprising was the absence of many of the plants and animals which abounded in Asia and neighbouring parts of the Malay Archipelago. Indeed, in several of the islands of Australasia there were hardly

Australasia
the part of
Oceania in
which lie the
British pos-
sessions.

Peculiarities
in the vege-
tation and
animal life
of Austral-
asia.

any of those food-producing plants which are most useful to man, and are most widely distributed over other parts of the world. Their absence was all the more remarkable inasmuch as there is nothing in the nature of the climate and soil to have prevented their cultivation.

The explanation of these singular facts has only been ascertained in recent times. Before, however, we

Explanation of these peculiarities. can understand it, we must know that in every part of the world the vegetation and animal life vary from age to age. Some kinds of plants and animals die out, others take their place, and the appearance and habits of many species gradually change. For instance, the bones of elephants, rhinoceroses, and hyenas are found in caves in England, whereas it is certain that, for thousands of years past, no animals of these kinds have existed in a state of nature in Great Britain. In like manner in most countries remains have been discovered of animals belonging to kinds which are now extinct throughout the world.

Again, we must remember that the land and water which form the surface of the earth may gradually change places with one another. In some districts the dry land has sunk so much that it is now covered by the sea; in others, the bottom of the sea has risen sufficiently to become dry land. Thus, for instance, in some mountainous regions which were once mainlands, the valleys have been overflowed and become straits, while the hills and high table-lands still remain above the water as islands and form an archipelago.

These marvellous changes are so slow that we can hardly perceive their progress, and many of them took place long before mankind inhabited any part of the

earth. But the rocks bear silent witness to them, and by examining the earth's crust, and the remains of plants and animals imbedded in it, we can learn a great deal about the history of the world, even from times when few, if any, of the kinds of animals and plants which now abound, were in existence.

Let us then hear what the surface of the earth teaches us about the causes of the peculiarities of the various islands of Australasia. It has been ascertained by sounding the depths of the intervening seas and straits that the larger islands of Australasia are separated by very deep waters from the Malay Islands to the north-west, while the latter are separated from Asia by only shallow waters.

Moreover, we find that the Malay islands in which the same plants and animals as those of Asia abound, are precisely the islands separated from that continent by very shallow seas. Consequently we learn that these islands can only have been divided from the mainland after Asia possessed the same plants and animals as at present.

On the other hand, in Australasia we find that the islands with peculiar plants and animals are precisely those which are surrounded by very deep waters. We may therefore be equally sure that they must have been isolated from the rest of the world for a much longer time. In fact, they must have been divided by the sea from other lands before many of their present peculiar kinds of plants and animals had any existence, otherwise some of the creatures peculiar to the Australasian islands would have wandered and been found elsewhere, and also many of the creatures inhabiting neighbouring

lands would not, as is the case, have been lacking in Australasia.

We must add that those animals which are found in only one of these two distinct groups of islands and not in the other, are mostly mammals, and therefore belong to a class of beasts which, being unable to fly, or to swim far, are the least able to cross even narrow straits. Thus, tigers, elephants, rhinoceroses, and tapirs abound in Borneo and Java, whereas none of these beasts are found in Australasia. On the other hand, most of the mammals in Australia are what are called marsupials, that is, animals with natural pouches in which they can carry their young, whereas there is only one kind of marsupial animal in all the rest of the world.

The British possessions in Oceania are—(1) Australia, (2) New Zealand, (3) Tasmania, which will be described in the following lessons; (4) the small island of Labuan and the Fiji Islands, which are described in Section V. of Appendix B.

LESSON XXXV.

AUSTRALASIA: ITS DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION.

UNTIL the early part of the seventeenth century little was known about Australasia. The Portuguese, Spaniards, and Dutch were the first Europeans to explore that region of the world, but their researches were chiefly confined to the islands

Dutch
explorers.

in the Malay Archipelago. Occasionally one daring navigator and another took a more southerly course, and sighted different parts of the great Australian island. In this work Dutch sailors were the most enterprising, and by them the newly found land was called *New Holland*. In 1642, Tasman, a Dutchman, discovered, far to the south, the island to which he gave the name of Van Diemen's Land. It is now commonly called *Tasmania*.

The first Englishman to sail those seas was a buccaneer, named Dampier, who, in 1688, visited the north-western coast of Australia. Strange to say, no efforts were made by any nationality to follow up these discoveries until nearly one hundred years had elapsed, and then our famous countryman, Captain Cook, was sent to explore the South Pacific Ocean. He visited the islands of New Zealand, which, first discovered by Tasman, had up to that time remained unexplored. Indeed, so ignorant were the first discoverers of the relative positions of the newly-found lands in this part of the Pacific, that the New Zealand group of islands, like Tasmania, was thought to be a portion of Australia. But the mistaken notion, with regard to New Zealand, was set right by Cook, who sailed round the northern island, and was the first European to land on its shores.

During the same voyage this famous navigator discovered, and for the first time explored, the eastern coast of Australia. It was in the spring of 1770 that Cook sighted the district now called Gipps Land, in Victoria. From this place he sailed northwards, and during the next six months skirted the whole eastern coast as far

as Cape York, the extreme northern point of the island; and so thorough was his examination that he was the first to make known to the world the size and shape of Australia.

The return of Cook to England, with a large collection of shrubs and flowers strange to British botanists, excited much interest in the work of exploring the Southern Seas. Cook was despatched again to that quarter of the globe, where he discovered several of the South Pacific islands, and among them the large island of New Caledonia. This success was soon afterwards followed by a third voyage; but unhappily it proved his last. In one of the group of the Sandwich Islands, which he had discovered on a previous voyage, this bold adventurous sailor was killed in a treacherous onslaught by the natives.

It is worthy of notice that Captain Cook rose to his high position from a very humble rank in life. His father was only a Yorkshire farm-labourer; but the peasant's son, like other great men of lowly birth, made the best use of the chances put in his way, and gradually rose from the post of ship-boy on a collier to that of captain in the Royal Navy, and became the greatest maritime discoverer of his day.

Cook's death was a very severe check to the course of discovery. But the exciting accounts of his voyages and adventures attracted the attention of Europe towards those hitherto unknown lands of the Pacific. His brilliant descriptions of their delightful climate, strange vegetation, curious animals, and barbarous inhabitants, could not fail to excite keen interest in the minds of his own countrymen. From time to time expeditions left

our shores to continue Cook's great work, especially in surveying the Australian coasts, until finally a complete knowledge of those parts was obtained. As information increased our countrymen began to emigrate to Australasia.

But the task of securing and colonising these distant lands was not an easy one. Many and great were the hardships and dangers which our countrymen had to undergo before they could obtain a sure footing in them. The natives in most cases disliked the strangers, and steadily resisted the early attempts at colonisation. It would seem as though they had a kind of instinct that with the arrival of the white man their own hold on their native land, and even their existence as a people, would begin to decay. As a matter of fact year by year the number of native inhabitants decreases, while that of the European population is becoming rapidly larger.

Difficulties
and results
of colonisa-
tion.

LESSON XXXVI.

AUSTRALIA : ITS EXPLORATION.

THE previous lesson gave us a sketch of the discovery and the exploration of the coast-line of Australia. We were also told that though the English were the last Europeans to explore that region of the globe they were the first to think of forming colonies there. They consequently found themselves almost the undisputed masters of an island nearly as large as Europe. When,

therefore, other European nations at last woke up to a sense of the value of this prize in the South Pacific, they found that the English had become too powerful in their new possession to be disturbed.

Until the beginning of this century, our footing in Australia was almost entirely confined to the east coast. Inland exploration to the westwards was hindered by two formidable obstacles. One was the continued hostility of the natives; and the other the physical barrier offered by the great range of the Blue Mountains, which runs parallel to the east coast at a distance of about fifty miles inland. For a long time this chain, although only about 4,000 feet high, was believed to be impassable; because the summits were so steep that they looked like an unbroken wall of rock; but severe necessity at length accomplished what curiosity and love of adventure had failed to do. A dry, scorching summer produced a drought so terrible that all the grass on the strip of land between the Blue Mountains and the sea was burned up, and the cattle perished in immense numbers from want of food. In despair, three colonists made up their minds to scale the western barrier, and to seek relief in the unknown land beyond it. After innumerable difficulties they succeeded in finding a pass, and were rewarded on their descent of the interior slopes by the sight of the rich and fertile expanse now called the Bathurst Plains. After this, the Blue Mountains were continually crossed, and colonisation rapidly extended westwards. Numerous large rivers were traced to their sources, and several of those grassy plains were discovered, which have since made the fortune of many an Australian emigrant. But

the whole centre of Australia and a large part of the west still remained unexplored, and excited eager curiosity, although it was supposed that one great desert extended over the whole region, and that it would probably prove unfit for habitation. Several expeditions were accordingly organised to explore it. Some of these were successful, but a great number failed, and caused, moreover, a serious loss of life. The accounts of the country that were brought back were frightful. The interior appeared to consist of a series of barren and sandy ridges, utterly destitute of any vegetation, except the dreaded scrub. This plant is a kind of prickly shrub, growing often to a height of eight or ten feet, and sometimes found in such dense masses as to be quite impenetrable. Occasionally the scrub is replaced by a still more dreaded growth, the 'spinifex'—a stumpy kind of grass, with extremely sharp, hard points, which run into the feet of the horses, often laming the poor animals so severely as to cause their death.

Amongst the many expeditions undertaken into this dreary waste, perhaps the saddest and most fatal was that conducted by Burke and Wills in the year 1861. The expedition was a large one, consisting of eighteen men. They started from Victoria, the most southern province of Australia, and proceeded north, passing through New South Wales into Queensland, the most northern province of Australia, which was little known at that time. When they had gone some way, the party separated; Burke, Wills, and one or two others continuing their route, while the rest remained at a place called Cooper's Creek, upon the river Barcoo, which flows into Lake Eyre. Here they were to await the return of their

companions, unless forced by want of provisions to return home. Burke and Wills pushed on bravely till they reached the river Flinders. They tracked the course of this river to its mouth, where it flows into the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north coast. Then, having thus successfully explored Queensland from south to north, they turned homewards, but their return journey was most disastrous. They lost their way and wandered hopelessly about in a most inhospitable country. Three of the party died from fatigue and starvation, and the others only just managed to struggle on by a long and dangerous route to Cooper's Creek, where they expected to meet their companions supplied with the provisions they so sorely needed. They, alas! were gone. That very morning the Cooper's Creek party, despairing of ever seeing their comrades again, had started for the south, carrying everything away. Starvation and death now stared the wretched travellers in the face. Weak and despairing they wandered on, scarcely hoping that relief would arrive in time to save them. And the help did not arrive until too late. Both Burke and Wills perished miserably. Their companion, King, alone was saved, but for some days after he was found, he lay at death's door.

These heroic expeditions show at what cost our knowledge of new countries has been gained; but these results only prove that one-half of the Australian continent is, and will in all probability remain, uninhabitable. It seems impossible that human ingenuity or industry will ever succeed in converting this dreary waste of burning sand, and coarse, dried-up vegetation into a fitting abode for man or beast.

LESSON XXXVII.

AUSTRALIA: ITS PHYSICAL FEATURES AND CLIMATE.

AUSTRALIA, with an area of 3,000,000 square miles, is only about one-fourth less in size than the entire continent of Europe. About two-thirds of the country lies within the Southern Temperate Zone, the remainder in the tropical regions. On the east and south it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean; on the west by the Indian Ocean; and on its northern side by the various straits or seas which divide it from the Malay Archipelago. Two islands of considerable size lie off its extreme northern and southern points, respectively, —New Guinea on the north, separated from the continent by Torres Strait; and Tasmania on the south, beyond Bass Strait.

The coast-line is not broken by many great openings, Australia being in this respect much like Africa.

The north coast is more irregular than the others, and here is found the large Gulf of Carpentaria. Corresponding to this on the south coast is the great Australian Bight, while further to the east are the important inlets of Spencer Gulf, St. Vincent Gulf, and Port Phillip. The west coast has numerous smaller openings, and some good harbours. The east coast has many inlets, of which the most important is Port Jackson—one of the finest harbours in the world.

A striking object of interest is the Great Barrier Reef of coral, which stretches for 1,200 miles along the

north-east coast at an average distance of sixty miles from the mainland. So unbroken is this reef, that in its whole length it has only one opening through which large ships may pass with safety.

The highest lands are found near the sea; the interior consists for the most part of lowlands, varied in the centre with rugged heights, rising to
Relief. 2,000 feet and upwards. Arid deserts are found in many parts, like those in the inland regions of Asia and Africa. So low does much of the interior lie, that, if the sea-level were to rise 500 feet, the chief part of the land would be under water, and the continent of Australia would be broken up into several islands, forming an archipelago like that on its northern shores.

The chief mountain chains run near and parallel to the east coast, stretching, with many interruptions, and in an irregular manner, from Victoria to York Peninsula. They are distinguished by various names,
Mountains.

but the best known are the Australian Alps, the Blue Mountains, and the Liverpool range. In the first-named chain is Mount Kosciusko, the highest peak in Australia. It is about 7,000 feet high—that is, twice the height of our Snowdon. Among these mountains lie beautiful gorges which are covered with vegetation that is often of a tropical character, and have their beauty further increased by clear and rapid streams that wind their way through them. Elsewhere the mountains are more isolated and much lower in height. Nearly in the centre of the continent there is an extensive group of highlands, among which are fertile valleys and rich grassy plains. Towards this central group a chain of heights runs eastward from the western coast; but whether

they are connected with each other or not, further exploration will show. The sameness of the general level of the southern region is broken by the Flinders Mountains, which bound the eastern side of Spencer Gulf.

The rainfall of Australia is very irregular, especially in the inland districts and along the east coast. In

Rainfall. some seasons rain falls in the greatest abundance; in others there is not a drop. For this reason Australia may be aptly called a land of floods and droughts.

The greatest quantity of rain falls on the eastern coast, where the mountain ranges condense the moisture carried by the east and south-east winds from the Pacific Ocean. This region is consequently the best watered in the whole continent. The winds passing hence into the interior, deprived of much of their moisture, become heated by the arid inland plains, and, rising into higher regions of the atmosphere, leave the thirsty ground as parched as ever.

The western and southern coasts experience a more equal rainfall, though it is not very abundant. In these, and all the temperate parts, winter is the season of greatest rain, but the lands within the tropics have their showers in the summer.

Australia for its size has but few lakes, and all the largest are salt. In most rocks and soils there occur

Lakes. various kinds of salts, which the rains dissolve out and carry down into the rivers. Now, the large Australian lakes have no outlets to the sea, and consequently they retain the salts supplied by their feeding streams, and so become salt lakes. The principal lake district lies between Spencer Gulf, on the south coast,

and the central highlands. Here are found Lakes Gairdner, Eyre, and Torrens, all comparatively close together, and each over 100 miles in length. Lake Amadeus, situated just to the north of the central mountain group, is also of considerable size, and, like those mentioned above, is saline.

This region was perhaps the most trying and wearisome of all to the early explorers, for they always had before their eyes vast sheets of water, which, from its saltiness, could not slake their thirst. Well might they cry with the 'Ancient Mariner' in the poem, 'Water, water, everywhere, but not a drop to drink!' These lakes vary in size considerably. In seasons of drought they diminish, some of them even dwindling to muddy pools or marshes. The country around them is generally bleak and desolate.

The rivers of Australia are numerous, but for the most part are only small streams, unfitted for navigation, and are often fitful torrents interrupted by rapids and cataracts. In seasons of heavy rains they overflow their banks and become rushing floods, most destructive to lands, houses, and cattle. On the other hand, in times of drought their beds become almost dry, with pools of water here and there in the deeper gorges. One cause of these striking changes in the rivers is the absence of deep fresh-water lakes in the higher lands; for such sheets of water serve as reservoirs, and regulate the water-supply in the rivers.

The eastern part of the continent is the best watered, and there the chief river systems are found. The most important of these is the Murray, which with its large tributaries, the Darling, Lachlan, and Murrumbidgee,

drains a vast area west of the Blue Mountains, and finds its way into the sea on the south coast through the fresh-water lake, Lake Alexandrina, near to St. Vincent Gulf. The scenery through which the Upper Murray flows is very fine, but some parts of its middle course are barren and dreary. The Murray is navigable for vessels of moderate size along a great part of its course for eight months of the year.

Considering its immense size, and its position, partly within the torrid and partly within the temperate zones,

Climate. Australia possesses a remarkably equable climate, and on the whole a healthy one. The heat in the uninhabitable interior is intense; but is modified from time to time by tremendous rains, which turn the inland deserts for a while into lakes and swamps. Along the coasts the heat is tempered by sea-breezes and a greater rainfall; but even these districts, especially on the south and east coasts, are not free from very hot winds, which, from their scorching character, are most injurious to vegetation. These hot winds are generally followed by violent gales from the south, called 'southerly bursters.' Clouds of dust, penetrating everywhere, give warning of the advancing 'bursters,' which are accompanied by heavy showers of rain.

Frost and snow are almost unknown in the north of the continent; but in the extreme south they are frequent, and on the higher ground the snow often lies for a considerable time.

LESSON XXXVIII.

**AUSTRALIA : ITS VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL
LIFE.**

AUSTRALIAN vegetation, like everything else in the country, is for the most part different from that of any other region of the globe, and for this reason the continent was frequently visited after its discovery by botanists. Strange to say, no wheat, or barley, or oats grew there, and but few fruits or vegetables fit for human food, although the soil and climate are most favourable to the growth of such plants, which now, after their introduction, thrive better there than in almost any other part of the world.

Another peculiarity of much of the native Australian vegetation is the manner in which the leaves of many of the plants grow. They do not spread themselves straight out from the stem, or branch, as the leaves of our trees and shrubs do, but they hang either straight down, or else in a slanting position, and consequently afford little shade from the sun. The trees, again, are for the most part evergreen, and the colour of the forests is therefore, as a rule, very dull and sombre. Thus the eye is not refreshed by the bright, delicate green of spring, or by the rich and mellow tints of autumn, to which we are accustomed. In some places, however, the vegetation is not without beauty. It is luxuriant and lovely in the well-watered valleys of the eastern districts. Here palms are to be seen rising to the height of seventy or

a hundred feet, and the forests are remarkable for the rich, bright colouring of their foliage, and their undergrowth of magnificent ferns, delicately tinted creepers, vines, and graceful lilies. There are, besides, exquisitely shaped orchids, many of the flowers of which are noted for their likeness to beautifully coloured insects; the roots of some of these plants grow in trees, while others obtain nourishment only from the air.

Australia can also boast of possessing the largest trees in the world. These giants of the forest are a kind of gum-tree called *eucalyptus*. Among the mountains to the east of Melbourne these trees have been found over 420 feet high, and one was discovered lying on the ground measuring as much as 480 feet: probably the grandest tree in the world. In strange contrast with the luxuriance of the vegetation of Eastern Australia is the meagreness of that of the dreary steppes in the interior. Like everything else in this gloomy region the scanty vegetation is ugly, and is much more an object of dread than of pleasure to the traveller. Here the sandy soil is only able to produce the prickly scrub and spinifex grass, at sight of which men and animals alike tremble.

The animals of Australia are even more remarkable than its vegetation. More than two-thirds of them are marsupials. The *kangaroo* is the principal animal of the kind. It is a very strange creature to look at, because of the great difference in the length of its limbs. Its fore legs are much shorter than its hind ones, and it generally moves in an upright posture, bounding over the ground by a series of swift leaps on its hind legs. The largest kind, the red

Animals.

kangaroo, is about five feet in height. These animals are being ruthlessly hunted down by the settlers, who wage perpetual war against them on account of the amount of grass they eat; and should the slaughter continue many years longer the kangaroos will be almost exterminated.

But perhaps the strangest of all Australian animals is the *duck-billed water-mole*, which, as its name shows,



KANGAROO.

has a bill like a duck, yet possesses four legs like a mammal. It inhabits rivers, and burrows in the banks.

Australia possessed before its colonisation few of the kinds of mammals most common in other parts of the globe. The cow, horse, pig, rabbit, and monkey were, for example, unknown; in fact, the only representatives of the animals with which we are so familiar were a peculiar kind of mouse and the *dingo*, a half-

wild dog, that was probably not originally a native of Australia. All the animals which have been im-



DUCK-BILLED WATER-MOLE.

ported into this country have, however, thriven remarkably well, so well indeed that in some instances they have become a positive nuisance, as is the case with the rabbit, which is even more destructive than the kangaroo.

The birds of Australia, though less peculiar than the mammals, are very numerous, and some of them extremely beautiful. Among the most remarkable is the *emu*, a very large wingless bird, somewhat resembling in form an ostrich; as its flesh is good to eat, and its skin yields a great deal of oil, it is mercilessly hunted, and is becoming rare in and near to all the settled districts of Australia. Another curious Australian bird is the *honey-sucker*, a kind of humming-bird which sucks honey out of flowers and blossoms. Most interesting, however, of all the birds of the country are the *bower birds*. Instead of building nests they construct bowers of twigs and branches, and decorate them with coloured feathers, bones, and shells. Some of these bowers are several feet long, and the birds seem to greatly admire their own work. The different kinds of parrots are very numerous. Warblers are not lacking, some of their notes being as beautiful as those of our sweetest songsters.

The Australian reptiles are numerous. There are several kinds of tortoise, the most valuable being the 'leathery turtle,' which yields large quantities of oil. Lizards abound, and there are two kinds of crocodile, one of which is thirty feet long. Of snakes Australia possesses numerous species, the majority of which are more or less venomous; but there are only five kinds whose bite is dangerous to human life.

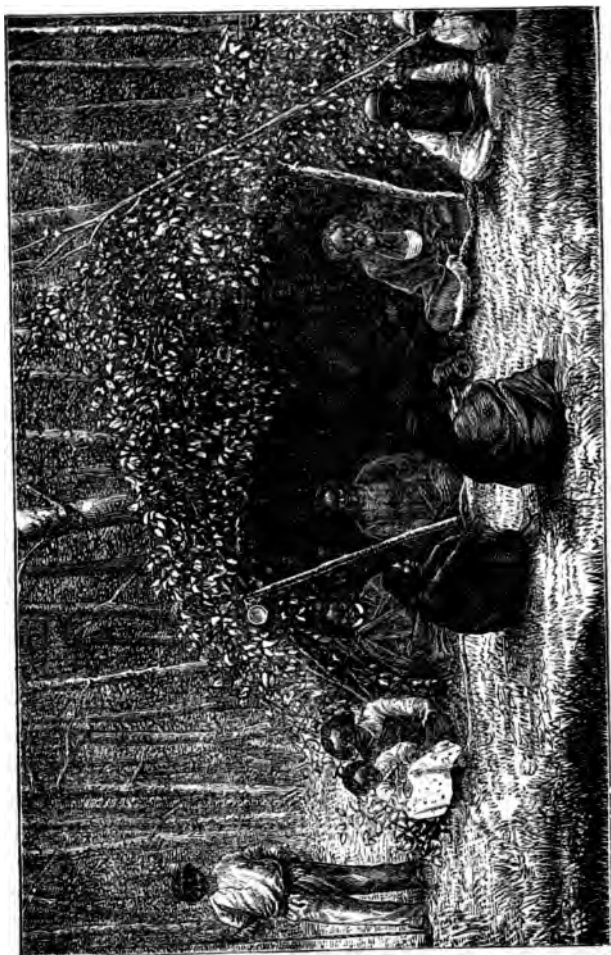
The rivers and seas of Australia abound in fish, including some kinds peculiar to the island—as, for instance, a species of salmon-trout found nowhere else. Cod and mackerel are very plentiful in the neighbouring seas, and are caught in large numbers.

LESSON XXXIX.

AUSTRALIA: ITS POPULATION AND RESOURCES.

THE population of Australia consists chiefly of British colonists and their descendants, but there are besides Population. about 70,000 of the original native races, and a considerable number of Chinese.

The aboriginal races are still in a savage state, and, like most other people in the same condition, are rapidly diminishing in numbers in the presence of civilisation. They are a very ugly, and in every way a low race of savages. They lead a wandering life, having no dwellings except in the winter, and then they make huts of twigs and bushes, just sufficiently large to creep into for shelter, and strong enough to last a few weeks. Their ideas of cooking are as simple as their dwelling-places. They have no cooking vessels of any kind, and simply broil their food, when they cook it at all, by throwing it on the embers of a fire. Everything that can possibly be eaten they eagerly devour, frogs and snakes of every sort being considered especial delicacies. No attempt is ever made by them to cultivate the ground or to rear animals for food, and



AUSTRALIAN NATIVES.

nothing is laid by in time of plenty; so that the Australian native is often a prey to frightful hunger. The women are, like those of all savage nations, mere slaves, and are entirely at the mercy of their husbands, by whom they are shamefully treated. The only skill and ability which the Australians display lie in the construction and use of their weapons. The boomerang, their principal hunting weapon, is very cleverly made. It is a flat piece of wood about three feet long and sharply curved in the middle. When thrown from the hand its flight is most irregular: at one time it takes a zigzag course, then it is seen whirling upwards, but such is the skill of the thrower that he often makes the weapon after a long flight return and fall at his feet. If the boomerang is thrown amongst a flock of birds, it will often hit several in its irregular flight through the air. Their spears and shields, though rudely made, are very serviceable. Several attempts have been made to civilise this race, but they have not been very successful, as the people themselves seem much to prefer their own wild and wandering life, even though it be so often attended by starvation and suffering.

Ever since the foundation of its first European colony, Australia has continued to increase steadily in population, wealth, and importance. All the inhabitable districts are now occupied by Europeans; and their number has swelled so rapidly, that since 1788 it has risen from 1,000 to nearly 3,000,000, of which about one-sixth are to be found in the great cities of Sydney and Melbourne. So flourishing indeed have the Australian colonies become, that their trade is even more active than that of the Canadian Dominions, which are

the largest possessions of the British Empire. The Chinese number about 15,000, and are located chiefly in the eastern districts, where they are employed as domestic servants and labourers.

Australia comprises at present five colonies, namely, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, West Australia, and Queensland. Of these, New South Wales is the oldest. In 1788 this colony began as a penal settlement to which the worst convicts were sent from England. The station was at Port Jackson on Botany Bay, and the descriptions of the lives and evil characters of the prisoners, the misery they endured there, and the frequent rebellions have been the subject of many a tale. It was, therefore, a happy day for the colony when, fifty years later, transportation of criminals to her shores was abolished. At first, New South Wales included all the country to the east of the 138th meridian, but in 1851, the southern portion requested to be made into a separate colony, and took the title of Victoria. A few years later, the northern portion likewise separated itself under the name of Queensland. The Australian colonies had little intercourse with one another previously to the discovery of gold in Victoria, in 1851. There were no connecting railroads or other means of internal communication, and the inhabitants of the various colonies consequently regarded each other more in the light of rivals than of countrymen. But the gold era produced a great change by opening up the country. Roads and railways were established between the settlements, telegraph lines were constructed from town to town, so that the colonists were within easy reach of one another, and having the same interests and pur-

suits, they soon began to be drawn together by a common bond of sympathy. This union has caused a vast improvement in the commerce and trade of Australia, which are now most flourishing.



GOLD-WASHING IN AUSTRALIA.

The chief sources of Australian wealth are its wool and its minerals. It was the discovery of gold in Victoria that first encouraged emigration into the continent. Then, as has been said, 'the rush of thousands began.' The fever for gold attracted alike rich and poor of every nation. All work but gold-digging was laid aside, and people flocked into the lucky colony to such an extent that the arrivals at Melbourne

Resources.

—the chief town of Victoria, numbered two thousand weekly. The other colonies were for a year or two quite deserted. So great was the find of gold, that in the first ten years forty millions' worth of the precious metal was exported, in addition to the millions that were coined in the country. All this wealth was obtained in the beginning in the easiest possible way, by simply washing the gold out of the sand, or soil in the beds of the streams. As the metal became scarcer, machinery was brought into use to crush the rocks and stones, and gold-finding is now, therefore, carried on with greater system. The other colonies, though less rich in gold than Victoria, have considerable sources of mineral wealth. Thus New South Wales has numerous gold-fields and coal mines; South Australia valuable copper mines; while Queensland produces large quantities of tin.

Wool is a special product of Australia, and is of enormous value. The number of sheep are nearly three times as many as there are in England. Wheat is also produced in large quantity, and the cultivation of the sugar-cane is rapidly increasing.

LESSON XL.

AUSTRALIA: ITS POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

NOTWITHSTANDING the loss of Victoria and Queensland, the colony of New South Wales still occupies a wide area, being five times as large as England and Wales. It is bounded on the north by Queensland, on the south by Victoria, on the east by the Pacific

New South
Wales.

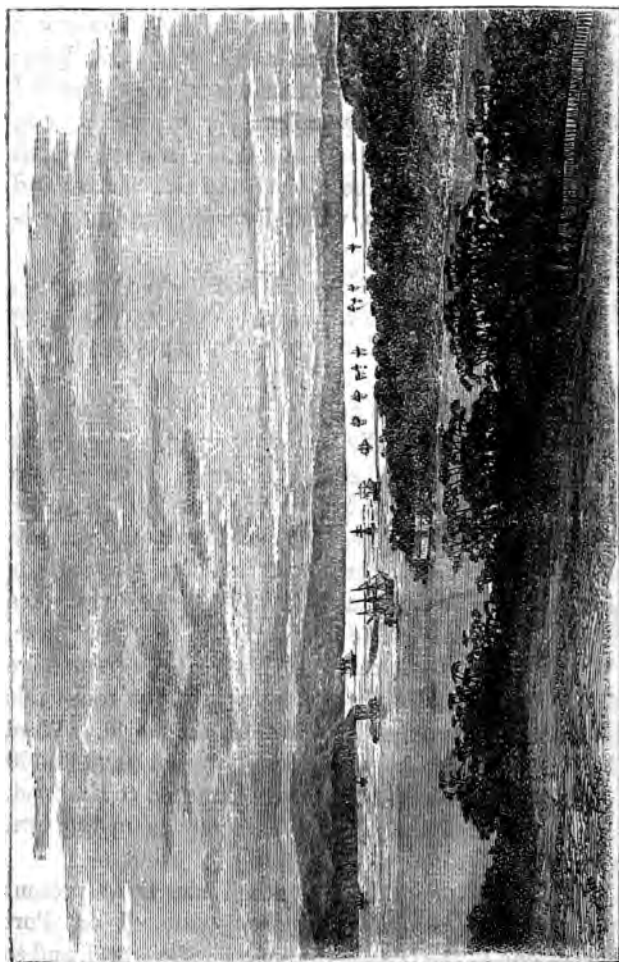
Ocean, and on the west by South Australia. New South Wales may be divided into three regions: the coast region, remarkable for its rich and fertile soil, lying between the coast and the mountains which run parallel to it at a distance of fifty miles; the central region, consisting of table-lands and mountain ranges, which contain nearly all the mineral wealth of the colony; and lastly, the western plains, which form its great pasture-lands.

The climate of New South Wales is very healthy, and on the whole agreeable. Rain falls frequently along the coast, but further inland great droughts have been known to occur.

All the rivers in this colony flow either east or west, taking their rise in the dividing range which runs across New South Wales from south to north. The eastern rivers, of which the Hawkesbury is the chief, have for the most part short courses and violent currents, and are unnavigable. The western half of the province is drained by the Murray and its tributaries, which, as before stated, is navigable for a great part of its course.

The mineral productions of New South Wales are gold, lead, iron, and more especially coal, the coal-fields being some of the most extensive in the world. Wool is, however, the principal export. About 20,000,000 lbs. of the finest quality are yearly exported to England. The number of sheep is twice as many as in our own country.

The population of New South Wales is at present 840,000. The capital is *Sydney*, situated on Port Jackson, one of the largest harbours in the world, and so picturesque that the town has been called 'The Queen of



SYDNEY HARBOUR.

the South.' It is famous for its fine public buildings and beautiful gardens. The population in the city and suburbs is about 237,000.

Immediately south of New South Wales lies the important colony of Victoria, which, although the smallest in the island, is almost as large in
Victoria. area as Great Britain.

The climate is very pleasant, and rather warmer than that of England. The beauty of its scenery and the luxuriance of its vegetation are also great attractions to the British emigrant. A range of mountains running from east to west forms the principal watershed. It is along this line that most of the gold was found in the early days of the colony, and sufficient is still found to form its chief export. Sometimes it is dug out in solid masses, called nuggets. The largest nugget yet known was discovered in 1869, near Ballarat, the great gold town of Victoria. It weighed 190 lbs. and was fitly called the 'Welcome Stranger.' Victoria is also rich in silver and tin; and its wool, though not so famous as that of New South Wales, is nevertheless an important export. Agriculture, especially the cultivation of wheat and oats, is also successfully carried on; but is not so popular an occupation as cattle-rearing and gold-digging.

The population of Victoria is steadily increasing, and is at present about 931,000, including Chinese and natives. The capital is *Melbourne*, which together with its suburbs has about 300,000 inhabitants. Like Rome, it is built on seven hills, the Yarra-Yarra River flowing below. It possesses magnificent public buildings, and its trade and commerce are very flourishing: it is, in

fact, one of the most important trading towns of the Southern Hemisphere. Ballarat and Sandhurst are both considerable towns, owing their importance, however, entirely to the gold-fields in which they are situated.

We have said of Victoria that, although it is the smallest of our Australian colonies, it is one of the most important; of Western Australia exactly the contrary statement may be made. Although the largest, it is by far the least satisfactory and prosperous. It embraces the whole of Western Australia, and has an area of nearly 1,000,000 square miles, or is about twenty times the size of England. Of all this vast extent, the south-west corner alone is cultivated. Even this district is not inviting: the mountains are low and bleak, and a great part of the surface is covered with scrub. Sheep-farming is carried on to some extent, but it has not hitherto proved a profitable occupation. Even minerals, elsewhere so abundant, are only found here in small quantities. The principal exports of the colony are wool, sandalwood, and pearl shells, these last being found in large quantities upon the northern shores. The great attraction of Western Australia is its climate, which is remarkably fine and healthy, the average death-rate being smaller here than in any other part of Australia. The population is nevertheless very scanty, and increases slowly. At the request of the colony, convicts were sent to it in order to swell the population, and supply the labour market. They were of great service, as they made several good roads and constructed numerous fine public buildings at Perth. In 1869 transportation to Australia was, however, abolished.

Perth, the capital of Western Australia, is situated on the Swan River, and is a small but fine and healthy town, with 7,000 inhabitants.

LESSON XLI.

AUSTRALIA: ITS POLITICAL DIVISIONS (*continued*).

THE original territory known as South Australia was the most southern colony in the island, but as its boundaries have been modified and extended, the name South Australia. is very unsuitable to the colony to which it is now given. So far from the present colony of South Australia being limited to the southern regions, it extends right across the island from the south coast to the north coast, and forms a great belt of land separating the eastern and the western portions of the island.

When we remember what we have already learnt about the centre of Australia, we shall not be surprised to find that it is only the regions along the coasts that are settled. The cultivated districts are, in fact, confined to one-tenth of this wide area; and they are chiefly found in the south of the colony, although settlers are now trying to establish themselves further inland. Large pastoral and agricultural lands lie in the neighbourhood of Adelaide, and these are being rapidly turned to use by the colonists. Thousands of sheep are fed upon the rich grassy plains, and the South Australians pride themselves much upon their wool, which is, nevertheless, inferior to that of New South Wales or Victoria. Agriculture promises, however, to be the

chief industry of the colony, as the soil is in places remarkably fertile. The climate is particularly favourable to the growth of the vine, and many acres are given up to its cultivation. Wine is among the principal exports; the others are wheat, wool, and copper. Copper ores are the minerals most abundant in South Australia. It was, in fact, the discovery of the Burra-Burra copper mines which originated the prosperity of the colony. Before that event it had not been popular, and was in a very backward condition. Now, however, the population is yearly increasing, and in 1880 was nearly 300,000, exclusive of natives.

The climate of the southern part of the colony is often very hot. This is partly owing to the fact that there are no mountains to protect it from the hot winds of the interior. The rainfall is, moreover, small, so that in the summer months—December, January, and February—the settlers suffer terribly from heat and drought.

The colony is divided into thirty-five counties. The capital, *Adelaide*, is situated on the river Torrens. It is a regularly built town with pretty suburbs, and has a population of about 50,000. The town is so famous for the number and beauty of its places of worship, that it has been called the ‘City of Churches.’

Queensland is the youngest born of our Australian colonies, having only been separated from New South Wales in 1859. It has an area of 670,000 square miles, that is about five and a half times the area of the United Kingdom; and extends from New South Wales on the south to the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north. The physical features of Queensland are like those of New South Wales. The ranges of mountains

run parallel to the coast at varying, but generally short, distances from it, thus dividing the country into a coast district and a broad interior region. All the rivers take their rise in these mountains, and flow in four different directions—south, north, east, and west. They are very numerous, and several of them are navigable. The coast region is the most fertile part of Queensland. It has a hot, moist climate, which produces a splendid vegetation, and is also very favourable to the growth of sugar and cotton, which form a large portion of the wealth of the colony. The highlands further west are large pasture-lands with a fine, tropical climate, subject however to severe droughts, while still further inland the grassy slopes are exchanged for arid waterless deserts.

Queensland is very rich in minerals. Gold and silver have been found in large quantities and are being successfully worked, while tin, lead, and copper ores are abundant. The Queenslanders are also very proud of their wool, although neither the quality nor the quantity is to be compared to that of the sister colonies. The population is rapidly increasing, and is now about 287,000. They belong to almost every nation; some are natives of other islands in Oceania, whence they have been brought in order to be employed upon the sugar plantations, while others are Chinese, Americans, and Europeans.

Queensland is divided into twelve districts. The chief town, *Brisbane*, is situated on the river of the same name; it is a very small town, and only contains about 35,000 inhabitants.

The Australian colonies all do homage to the mother

country, and acknowledge the Queen as their sovereign ; but the government of certain of them is much more democratic than that of others. Each of them has a governor appointed by the Crown and two Houses of Parliament ; but here the likeness ends. In New South Wales, West Australia, and Queensland, the upper houses, or assemblies, consist of members appointed by the Crown for life ; while those of the lower houses are chosen by the people, like our own members of Parliament. In Victoria and South Australia on the contrary, both houses are chosen by the people.

Every kind of religion prevails in Australia, but the majority of the population belong to the Protestant faith. The Australians are on the whole well educated, and women receive their full share of educational advantages.

LESSON XLII.

TASMANIA.

THE island of Tasmania—or Van Diemen's Land, as it was formerly called—lies immediately to the south of Australia, from which it is separated by Bass Strait, 150 miles in width. This island is about 200 miles long, and rather less in breadth. Its shape is like an irregular triangle, and it occupies an area of about 26,000 square miles—that is rather more than one-fifth the size of the United Kingdom. It is surrounded by numerous minor islands, which, how-

ever, are too small and insignificant to arrest our attention.

The coast-line of Tasmania is broken towards the south-east into several large bays and inlets, some of them forming fine harbours. The west coast is very rocky and dangerous.

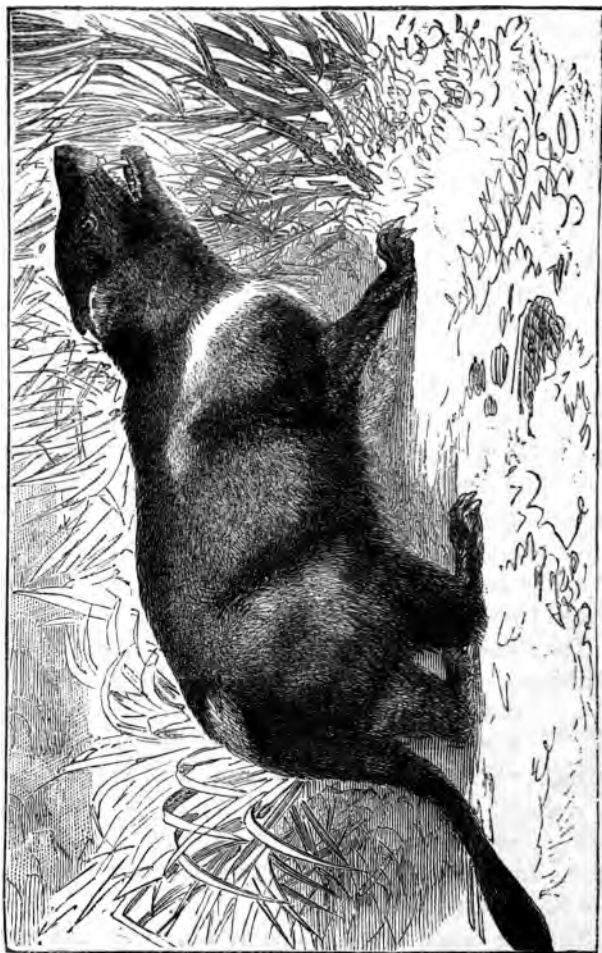
Tasmania is perhaps the most mountainous island on the globe. It forms, in fact, one large table-land, with peaks rising from it to a height of from 1,000 to 5,000 feet. The highest mountains are found in the north-east and central divisions.

The rivers of Tasmania are numerous. Several of them take their rise in mountain lakes which lie imbedded in the heart of the island. The whole island is remarkable for its beauty and variety. Towards the north and south-west are vast forests which yield splendid timber. The central plateau consists of fertile valleys and plains, while near the coast, snow-capped mountains are to be seen, with their slopes covered by varied and ever-green forests.

The climate of Tasmania is famous for its extreme healthiness. It is rather like our English climate, but
Climate. much more mild and genial. The heat of

summer is tempered by the mountains and by the sea; while frost and snow are almost unknown in the valleys. The rainfall is small; but as rain falls more or less in every season of the year, as it does with us, the smallness of the quantity is less felt than if it were confined to certain months.

The vegetation of Tasmania is luxuriant and very similar to that of Australia. The animals are for the most part marsupials; and two species of this group



TASMANIAN 'DEVIL.'

are characteristic of Tasmania: these are the 'tiger-wolf' and the 'native devil.' The former is nearly as big as a wolf, and has a handsome striped skin; while the 'native devil' somewhat resembles a cat. Both these animals are hated by the settlers on account of the terrible nightly ravages which they make amongst the flocks and herds.

Tasmania is tolerably rich in minerals, but as mining is not an easy occupation in this country, they have been rather neglected. Tin ore, however, is largely worked. Iron ore and coal are abundant, while gold, copper, and lead are known to exist.

The European population of Tasmania is now increasing; but for a long time the popularity and prosperity of the colony seemed doubtful. Like New South Wales, it began as a penal settlement, and many of the convicts were a terror to the few free settlers. If a convict succeeded in escaping, he often became what is called a bushranger. These bushrangers used to take shelter in the thick, uninhabited forests, and live there from hand to mouth, by attacks upon the farms around, the owners of which they sometimes brutally murdered. Later on, the number of free settlers having greatly increased, they asked to have the transportation of convicts to Tasmania abolished; and this was done in 1853. The discoveries of gold in Australia unfortunately drew away a large number of the inhabitants. Still the colony is prospering, and the population now numbers about 120,000. The original natives who inhabited Tasmania at the time of its discovery by Tasman have all died out. The last of the race was an old woman of eighty-three, who died in 1876. The

Vegetable
and animal
life.

Minerals.

Population
and indus-
tries.

natives of Tasmania were decidedly superior to those of Australia, both in appearance and character. Their ideas of cooking, clothing, and dwellings were simple, it is true, but cannibalism was unknown amongst them, and their women, although overworked, were not brutally treated.

The chief occupations of the colonists are sheep-farming, agriculture, and fruit-growing. Fruit of every description grows in abundance; and large quantities of fruit and jam are exported. The other exports are wool, wheat, cheese, butter, and hides.

Tasmania is very English in its customs, habits, and general appearance. Railways are scarce, but the roads are numerous and good, and the inns at which the stage-coaches draw up are very like those of England before the days of railways. The houses, too, are built after the English fashion. The island is connected with Australia and New Zealand by submarine telegraph.

Tasmania is divided into eighteen counties, some of which, however, are still unsettled. The capital is Hobart Town, now called *Hobart*, situated near the mouth of the river Derwent. It has over 28,000 inhabitants, and is a clean, healthy place, with many fine buildings. Launceston, near the mouth of the Tamar, is the only other town of importance. The government of Tasmania consists of a governor appointed by the Crown, and two houses of parliament, the members of the upper house being elected for six years, those of the lower house for five. The people are being well educated, and the larger proportion are Protestants.

Divisions
and towns.

LESSON XLIII.

NEW ZEALAND.

In a previous lesson we explained several facts that throw light upon the changes which have taken place on the surface of the earth in Oceania. From similar facts we infer that at one time there must have been a very large island situated about a thousand miles south-east of Australia. But the waves of the ocean, which never rest for a moment by night or day, have been for countless ages at work upon its shores, wearing away rocky barriers and overflowing low-lying districts. Volcanic forces have also wrought wonderful changes in this region, upheaving parts of it thousands of feet high, and sinking others below the sea-level. Thus it has come to pass that where formerly lay one great island, we now find a group of islands, divided from one another by straits, some of which are of considerable width.

This cluster of islands is known as *New Zealand*. Its position is singularly lonely, for on every side to a distance of more than a thousand miles the monotonous expanse of the surrounding ocean is unbroken save by a few small island groups.

New Zealand comprises two large islands known as *North Island* and *South Island*, with a small island called *Stewart's Island*, and numerous outlying rocky islets scattered round the coast, the united areas of the cluster being about 100,000 square miles.

Of these islands only the two larger ones claim our attention, as *Stewart's Island* contains a population of

only a few hundred persons, while the little isles are uninhabited.

The two larger islands are divided from each other by Cook's Strait, which in its narrowest part is only sixteen miles wide. The coast of North Island North Island and South Island. is very much indented; indeed, the north portion of it is reduced to the form of a peninsula connected by only a narrow isthmus with the mainland. This irregular coast-line forms many fine bays and harbours. South Island is more regular and compact in shape, but here also we find several gulfs and inlets, affording excellent anchorage for ships.

The islands are very mountainous, and being partly of volcanic origin include among their peaks the craters of many active, as well as extinct, volcanoes. Relief.

In the northern peninsula of North Island the hills are low, and the scenery chiefly characterised by fertile, well-watered valleys; but in the southern or main body of the island the mountains increase in height, and reach their greatest elevation in the snow-capped peak of Mount Ruapehu, which is over 9,000 feet high. Within sight of Ruapehu is the active volcano of Tongariro, with an elevation of about 7,000 feet.

When we turn to South Island, we find that its western side is traversed throughout its entire length by a lofty chain of mountains known as the Southern Alps, which, with its high table-lands, its snowy peaks, its great glaciers and its blue lakes, very much resembles the Alps of Switzerland. Its highest summit is Mount Cook, over 13,000 feet. A second lower range of hills runs down the centre of South Island, and descends to the sea eastwards in a succession of terraces.

If we consider the position of New Zealand and the character of its relief, we shall see at once that it must be well watered. The islands are surrounded on all sides by the ocean, they lie far away from any large tract of land to intercept the moisture of the sea breezes, and contain numerous mountains to act as condensers. In every respect, therefore, these islands are well placed to receive an abundant rainfall, a great deal of which is moreover treasured up in the snow-fields and glaciers of the higher ranges, and thus affords supplies of water in dry seasons.

As a natural consequence the islands are everywhere intersected by streams. The course, however, of the rivers is for the most part so short, and their descent from the mountains so rapid, that many of them are unfit for navigation, and few of them are navigable for more than fifty miles from their mouths. The largest is the Waikato, which rises in a lake in the interior of North Island, and flows in a north-westerly direction to the sea.

New Zealand contains many lakes. In North Island we find lakes very unlike any in Europe. Its largest sheet of water is Lake Taupo, twenty-five miles long, twenty broad, and so deep that it has never been fathomed. On its western side the shores, formed of volcanic deposits, rise sheer to a height of over a thousand feet. A few miles south of it towers the smoking summit of Tongariro, while from its northern end flows forth the Waikato, the river of which we have just spoken as the largest in New Zealand. Twenty-five miles beyond the lake, the river passes near strange scenes. For a mile on each side of

it are pink and white stone terraces indented with basins full of boiling water, and varied by curious circular mounds, from which ever and anon fountains of hot water leap high into the air. These are known as geysers. North-east of Taupo lies a second and even more remarkable region of lakes, boiling cauldrons, geysers, hot springs, and pools of hot bubbling mud. But to those who have never visited a district of the same kind it is almost impossible to convey a notion of its wonders. On the other hand, in the Alpine district of South Island are inlets of the sea equalling in their wild beauty the fiords of Norway, and lakes very like some of the most beautiful in Switzerland.

New Zealand possesses a very fine and healthy climate, not unlike that of England. The chief points of difference between the two climates are
Climate. that in New Zealand the summer is rather warmer and longer than in Great Britain, and the winter not quite so cold. The number of wet days also is less, for though the annual rainfall is greater, it falls in such heavy downpours that it is spread over shorter periods of the year. Many parts of the islands are subject to violent winds.

LESSON XLIV.

NEW ZEALAND (*continued*).

THE native vegetation of New Zealand is very peculiar, and includes many species of plants which are not to be found in any other part of the world. Flowers
 Vegetation. are comparatively scarce, and of the few species found in the island, two-thirds are unknown elsewhere.

Before the arrival of Europeans the only cultivated plants were the sweet potato, the taro, and the gourd. These, with the roots of ferns, a few kinds of berries, fruit and fish, supplied nearly the whole food of the natives.

The forest scenery is rendered very sombre by the absence of bright flowering shrubs, and as the native foliage is all evergreen, it is not varied by the fresh bright tints of spring so lovely in our woods. These dark forests yield, however, very splendid timber. One tree, the *kauri*, a majestic pine which grows to a height of from 180 to 200 feet, is especially valuable, but unfortunately it has been so recklessly cut down by the colonists that it is becoming very rare. New Zealand is also famous for its ferns, some of which are thirty or forty feet high. Beyond the forests and fern-covered hills are vast grassy plains admirably suited for agriculture or cattle-breeding. In recent times many European forest and fruit trees, as well as several kinds of grain, have been introduced into the cultivated districts, and are all thriving well.

It is curious to note that when New Zealand was

discovered by the Europeans, it contained only five kinds of mammals—a cat and a dog, two species of bats, and a kind of otter found in the mountains of South Island. Even of these few mammals, two (the cat and the dog) are believed to have been introduced by the natives at a comparatively recent time. They have now been entirely supplanted by the more powerful dogs and cats introduced from Europe.

Animals.

The birds of New Zealand are numerous, and in some instances very beautiful. One kind, the *kiwi*, is an extremely curious bird. It is about the size of a small domestic fowl, but has neither wings nor tail. The kiwis, as they cannot fly, fall an easy prey to their enemies, and they have now completely disappeared from the settled districts. They are believed to be the last survivors of a race of wingless birds which once ran about the islands, and some of which were much larger than the largest ostrich.

Lizards swarm in New Zealand, but there are no snakes, and only one kind of frog. Fish are also very scarce in the rivers, and the islands contain but few insects.

Although mammals were once so scarce in New Zealand, many kinds recently brought into the country thrive wonderfully. Among them are pigs, rats, and rabbits, which run wild, and have multiplied so fast and devour so much food that they have become a source of trouble to the inhabitants.

The natives are called *Maories*, and belong to a race widely spread through the islands of Oceania. When New Zealand was first discovered, the natives were found to be very superior in intelligence and in many other ways

to most of the native races of the Southern Hemisphere. They lived together in villages enclosed by ditches and palisades. Their huts were well built, and adorned with gay patterns and carvings of no mean skill, while their household furniture and weapons of war were often well made and highly ornamented. Outside each village was a piece of ground in which

Native
population.



TATTOOED HEAD OF NEW ZEALANDER.

sweet potatoes and one or two other plants were grown for food. The clothes of the Maories consisted partly of a kind of linen, made from the fibres of a native plant, and partly of dogskin. Like many other races, the Maories tattooed themselves. Their women were generally kindly treated, and their homes were more comfortable and much happier than is common among any but civilised

nations. Moreover, the Maories understood the difference between right and wrong, and had a belief in a future and happier life. We regret, however, to have to add that some of the tribes were cannibals, having been tempted to become so by the great scarcity of animal food; another motive was that, like many barbarous races, they believed that the character of a brave warrior passed to the person who ate his flesh.

New Zealand was discovered by Tasman in 1642, but its area and extent were only ascertained at a later period by Captain Cook. It was claimed by the English as early as 1787, but the first European settlers did not establish themselves there until 1839. In that year British emigrants founded the settlement of Wellington, on Cook's Straits. Other settlements followed, and the European population has rapidly increased.

The influence of the Europeans has been in some ways favourable to the character of the natives. Most of them have been converted to Christianity, and so highly do they prize its light that a Maori mission is now labouring for the conversion of neighbouring islands.

Cannibals are nowhere to be found in the islands, and the natives are adopting the ideas and customs of the colonists. But unfortunately this fine race, like so many others, seems unable to hold its own in the midst of European settlers. When the latter took possession of New Zealand, the islands are believed to have contained over 100,000 Maories. Now their number is less than 45,000, while the colonists are already ten times as numerous.

The New Zealand islands are rich in minerals, among the most valuable of which are gold and coal.

Resources
and indus-
tries.

A large part of the country is well adapted for agriculture, or for the raising of cattle and sheep, and the European population is largely employed in these pursuits.

Among the chief exports are wool, meat—a great deal of frozen mutton and beef, as well as tinned meats, being now sent to England—hides, leather, the gum of the kauri-pine, timber, flax, and tallow.

New Zealand is divided into nine principal districts, and these districts are further subdivided into sixty-three counties.

Political di-
visions and
government.

Wellington, in North Island, from its central position, has been made the capital of New Zealand, but the district in which it stands is subject to earthquakes, and is therefore but thinly peopled. On one occasion the town was nearly overthrown by one of these terrible convulsions. After its occurrence the town was entirely rebuilt of wood, as it is found that wooden houses stand the shocks of an earthquake better than any other.

The largest town in New Zealand is *Dunedin*, which is in South Island. Its population is rapidly increasing, and it is the most important commercial port in the colony. In this island also are the districts of *Nelson*, famous for its coal-fields, and the region of *Westland*, enriched by its gold mines. There, moreover, are the great wheat-growing and stock-breeding districts of New Zealand.

New Zealand, like most of the British colonies,

enjoys the advantages of free institutions, and is governed by two Houses of Parliament. One is chosen by the people, and is formed of eighty-four British and four Maori representatives. The other house is formed of members appointed for life by the Crown.

APPENDIX A.

ANIMAL LIFE.

SECTION I.—*Main Causes which vary the Distribution of Animal Life.*

ONE of the most charming sights in London is the great collection of living animals in the Zoological Gardens. Here, standing in the midst of spreading trees, green lawns, and gay flower-beds, are numerous detached houses and cages, in which may be seen animals from almost every part of the world. In these gardens we may therefore learn a great deal about the homes of the different animals which inhabit the earth.

The curiosity of a visitor is especially excited by one corner of the gardens, where animals so enormous are found that few persons have an idea of their size, unless they have actually seen them. Foremost among them for grace and beauty is the giraffe. The height of its head from the ground is three times that of a very tall man.

In a neighbouring house lives the elephant—the bulkiest and strongest of all land animals. If not at home, this huge but docile beast will be found in the

gardens, walking about with a number of merry children on its back, while others crowd round their favourite and feed it with cakes.

Another paddock in the same building contains the rhinoceros, which ranks next to the elephant for size and strength. Also in this part of the gardens is the hippopotamus—an animal living partly on land and partly in rivers, and scarcely smaller in size than the rhinoceros.

Now these gigantic creatures belong to the four largest kinds of land animals, and it is remarkable that all of them, in their wild state, inhabit chiefly the Torrid Zone, and are herbivorous, or, in other words, live on vegetable food.

In another part of the gardens are some animals of quite another class—namely, lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, and the grizzly and the Polar bears. They are all hunting animals, which live almost entirely on flesh, and are therefore called carnivorous beasts. The visitor at once notices a striking difference between them and the herbivorous, or plant-eating animals. The latter generally move in a slow, stately manner. When not vexed, their eyes have a tranquil, almost a serene, expression. In a word, they are evidently disposed to be quiet and harmless. But the carnivorous and hunting beasts, on the contrary, betray their impatience of captivity by pacing restlessly up and down their cages. When the keepers push food to them through the strong iron bars of their dens, they seize it eagerly, and often roar furiously at the spectators, in the fear that it may be taken from them. Their glaring, watchful eyes, not less than

their movements, show their disposition to be anxious, greedy, and fierce. This is the natural consequence of the difficulty which all carnivorous animals have in finding their prey, and the long fasts they have sometimes to suffer. Now the beasts just described are larger than any other kind of carnivorous land animals, and, as in the case of the largest herbivorous ones, they are, with the exception of the bears, much more plentiful in the Torrid Zone than in any other.

We shall, therefore, naturally ask ourselves whether the fact that the largest land animals are most numerous in the Torrid Zone is explained by the peculiarities in its climate or in the food it supplies. The answer is not far to seek.

In a previous lesson we learned that vegetation grows most freely in the tropical regions. We can therefore readily understand why the large herbivorous animals should inhabit chiefly the zone where vegetable food is most abundant; and although the carnivorous beasts do not feed on plants, the animals they devour are mostly herbivorous, so that the carnivorous beasts also find their food plentiful where vegetation is luxuriant.

There is, however, another reason why gigantic animals multiply more rapidly in the Torrid Zone than elsewhere. Animals of such a size are very destructive. The herbivorous animals trample down, as well as eat up, the crops of the people. The stronger carnivorous animals devour cattle and often also men, women, and children. In India, for instance, many hundreds of persons are killed every year by tigers.

It seems at first strange to us that the tropical races should allow so many mischievous beasts to live in their

midst. This fact will strike us the more when we remember that the dangerous wolves and bears which in older times roamed over Great Britain were exterminated many centuries ago, and also that these animals in other of the highly civilised parts of Europe are every day becoming scarcer. But the truth is that the natives of the tropical countries are comparatively ignorant and helpless. Until the beginning of this century very few of them had firearms. Without such weapons they could only carry on the chase with bows and arrows, or spears, or by digging holes, which they covered with boughs of trees, and into which the animals fell. By such rude means it is impossible to protect a country from the ravages of any animals, whether they be great or small. In the present day, however, well-armed Europeans visit the tropical countries to hunt wild beasts, and many of the natives themselves possess guns. Consequently some animals are already becoming scarce in districts where once they were plentiful. For instance, in parts of Africa where elephants formerly abounded, no more are to be now found; they have been mercilessly killed for the sake of their valuable ivory tusks.

Thus we find that the larger animals abound in the Torrid Zone chiefly because here their food is abundant, and until lately their most dangerous enemy, man, has been unprovided with means for their destruction.

For much the same reasons many of the smaller mammals are very numerous in tropical regions, and the number of different kinds inhabiting them is very great.

A visit to the serpent-house of the Zoological

Gardens would further show the visitor that the largest, as well as many of the most venomous snakes are inhabitants of the Torrid Zone.

He would also notice that most of the birds with very bright and beautiful feathers had come from the tropical forests. One reason for this curious fact is that in these forests the vegetation is very thick and the leaves are highly variegated in colour. Here therefore gay feathers are not so conspicuous as they would be in the sombre woods of the other zones, and gaily-coloured birds are concealed from the larger birds of prey.

Moreover, it is remarkable that in any large collection of different kinds of preserved insects, the greatest number of varieties, and also the most glittering specimens, have been brought from the Torrid Zone.

Lastly we must add that the tropical rivers contain many more kinds of fish than any rivers in the other zones. The Amazon, one of the tropical rivers of South America, is estimated to contain over one thousand different kinds of fish, an extraordinary number even in proportion to its enormous size.

As the lands in the Northern Temperate Zone stretch from the Tropical regions on the south to the Arctic regions on the north, these lands necessarily possess striking varieties of climate. The animal life of this zone is consequently of many kinds. In addition to the animals best fitted to thrive in a very temperate climate, there are in the northern parts of the zone many animals common to the Frigid Zone, and in the southern portion many common to the Torrid Zone.

On the other hand, the temperate lands of the

Southern Hemisphere nowhere extend to the Arctic regions; they are therefore not inhabited by any creatures especially adapted to live in cold countries. The varieties of animal life in the Southern Temperate Zone are consequently fewer than in the Northern one.

Most of the land animals in the North Frigid Zone and in the bordering regions are comparatively small.

Animal life in the North Frigid Zone. There are, however, some few exceptions, notably the Polar bear, the musk ox, and the reindeer; but the food which these animals require is of such a nature that they can obtain it in sufficient quantities even in the cold places they inhabit.

The Polar bear lives chiefly on the flesh of the class of animals termed *amphibious*, because they can live both on land and in water. These abound in the northern seas. The musk ox—an animal somewhat smaller than a bull, but more like a ram in form—and the reindeer are both herbivorous, and feed throughout the winter on different kinds of moss, which are very plentiful in their dreary haunts.

But, though most of the animals in these cold regions are small in size, they are very valuable to man. Nature clothes them with very fine, soft, thick hair, to enable them to bear the bitter winter, and this, with their skins, furnishes us with the warmest furs.

Some species of animals inhabit a very wide range of latitude, but they are of necessity creatures which can live either on many different kinds of food, or on some particular description of food widely distributed over the earth. Bears belong to the former class. The grizzly bear is one of the four largest of the carnivorous animals, and is so strong

Some animals have a wide range of latitude.

that it can kill and drag to its den a full-grown buffalo, which is equal in size to an English bull. But though this bear prefers flesh, it can live on many kinds of vegetable food, and on this account it is enabled to range over every part of the Temperate Zone in North America. Another large bear, known as the brown bear, was found in Great Britain as late as the eleventh century, and is still occasionally found in the central, and even the southern, countries of Europe; but it is only very common in the north of the Continent. It prefers vegetable food and honey, but when pressed by hunger it can live also on flesh. It has, moreover, the wonderful power of sleeping through the winter months, when its natural food is scarce.

The horse, living on widely distributed grasses, has even a wider range than the bear, and thrives in every latitude within the Torrid and Temperate Zones, but it attains its greatest size in very temperate climates.

The distribution of animal life in the world is not, however, determined by differences of climate and food only. Many animals are unable to travel over wide sheets of water, great deserts, or high mountains, and for this reason alone they are confined to their original homes.

Difficulties
of emigra-
tion limit
the spread
of various
species of
animals.

Insects are the creatures which are spread most widely over the earth's surface. Many of them can both crawl over the ground and fly in the air, and those which fly are often carried helplessly by high winds over great distances. Frequently insects are floated over the seas in the hollows of trees, or carried about in travellers' luggage, and sometimes their eggs are removed

by these means to far countries, when the warmth of the sun hatches them.

Birds also are great travellers. Sea fowls fly over great distances across the surface of the ocean. Sea-gulls, and a pretty little bird known as 'Mother Carey's Chicken,' are seen hovering far out on the wild Atlantic Ocean, and sleeping at night upon its troubled waters.

There is also a group of birds which change their home according to the season. Thus swallows, storks, nightingales, cuckoos, and many other kinds, stay with us in England during the summer, but in autumn take flight to warmer regions, such as South Europe and North Africa. These are called *migratory birds*, or 'birds of passage.'

Some birds which are not migratory are found widely distributed through different parts of the world. Our familiar little friend the sparrow may be seen hopping about on the roofs of the houses in China, or pecking up corn in the wheat fields of Europe and America, looking everywhere just as pert and brisk as in the streets and farmyards of old England.

It is almost needless to add that those quadrupeds which can neither swim far nor fly at all are the creatures least given to changing their abodes. Each continent consequently possesses many kinds of quadrupeds peculiar to it.

We know comparatively little of the habits of the creatures which live wholly in the sea, or of the amphibious animals. We know, however, that the differences of temperature are much smaller below the surface of the water than above it. We must also remember that the larger seas and oceans are con-

Marine
animal life.

nected with one another by water-ways, and, therefore, sea animals can roam about more freely than creatures on land.

For these reasons the same kinds of sea fish and amphibious animals are spread over very wide parts of the sea, and inhabit very different latitudes. The Greenland whale, a *mammal*—that is to say, an animal which suckles its young—is the largest of all known creatures either of the land or of the water. Though most common in the Arctic seas, it is sometimes also seen on the coasts of Great Britain and even a few degrees nearer to the equator. Seals, which belong to a large family of amphibious animals, also inhabit in great numbers the waters and shores of both the Frigid and Temperate Zones. The largest specimen, however, of this family, namely, the walrus, is only found in very cold regions.

Summary.—The following is a summary of what has been stated above:—

1. Each separate kind, or *species*, of animals can only inhabit those regions of the earth which produce one or more of the particular kinds of food required to satisfy its wants, and in which also it can escape destruction from its enemies. Many animals are able to bear great changes of climate, and consequently the differences of temperature that exist between the various parts of the earth limit the spread of each separate species over the earth's surface much less than differences of vegetation do. But no species of animal has ever found its way to every region suited to its habits and wants. Only the most intelligent races of mankind are able to roam freely over the world, and to settle in

any country they like, however distant it may be from their original home.

2. Insects are the creatures which are most widely spread over the face of the earth.

3. Birds also are great travellers, and some of the hardier kinds are found in many different countries.

4. Quadrupeds are the animals which have the greatest difficulty in changing their abodes, and consequently each continent possesses many kinds peculiar to it.

5. Many of the same kinds of marine animals are found spread through very wide tracts of the sea, and in very different latitudes, but the largest kinds are most common in the colder seas.

6. In the Torrid Zone animal life on land is most varied, and attains the largest size. Here also live the most beautiful birds, the largest snakes, many of the venomous ones, and also the greatest number of bright and glittering insects.

7. In the North Temperate Zone the varieties of animal life are also numerous, and many kinds of animals living in this zone are common to the Arctic and Tropical regions respectively. Animal life is less varied in the Southern Temperate Zone.

8. The animals of the North Frigid Zone, and of the regions bordering thereon, are, with few exceptions, comparatively small in size.

SECTION II.—*List of Animals, numerous or curious, in the larger British Possessions.*

INDIGENOUS WILD ANIMALS.					
(1) <i>Carnivorous Quadrupeds.</i>					
Dingo or Australian dog.					
Ermine					
Fox (Arctic variety)					
Hyæna	—	—	—	—	—
Jackal	—	—	—	—	—
Leopard	—	—	—	—	—
Lion	—	—	—	—	—
Lynx	—	—	—	—	—
Otter (very rare in New Zealand)	—	—	—	—	—
Tiger	—	—	—	—	—
Tasmanian or Tiger Wolf (marsupial)				—	
Tasmanian Devil (marsupial)				—	
(2) <i>Herbivorous Quadrupeds.</i>					
Antelope (the greatest number of varieties are found in Africa)	—	—	—	—	—
Bear	—	—	—	—	—
Beaver					
Buffalo or Bison (American variety)				—	
Buffalo (Indian variety)	—	—	—	—	—
Buffalo (Cape variety)		—			
Elephant	—	—	—	—	—
Giraffe		—			
Hippopotamus	—	—	—	—	—
Hare (animals closely resembling hares, but not really belonging to this group, are found in India and South Africa)				—	

	India	South Africa	Dominion of Canada	Australia and Tasmania	New Zealand
<i>Indigenous Wild Animals.—Herbivorous Quadrupeds (continued).</i>					
Kangaroo (marsupial)				—	
Quagga		—			
Musk Ox			—		
Moose or Elk			—		
Reindeer			—		
Rhinoceros (once common, but now rarely if ever seen in the South African colonies)	—	—			
Sable			—		
Sloth Bear	—				
Wapiti Deer			—		
Zebra		—			
(3) <i>Omnivorous Quadrupeds.</i>					
Duck-billed water mole (its chief food consists of insects and small fish, but it is supposed to feed also on some kinds of plants)				—	
Grizzly Bear			—		
Polar Bear (this animal feeds chiefly on flesh, and only occasionally on plants)			—		
Opossum mouse (marsupial)				—	
(4) <i>Birds.</i>					
Adjutant	—				
Bower-bird				—	
Emu				—	
Kiwi-kiwi				—	—
'Laughing jackass' (a bird with a singular cry)				—	
Lyre-bird				—	
Ostrich		—		—	
Parrot	—	—		—	—
Felican	—	—			

	India	South Africa	Dominion of Canada	Australia and Tasmania	New Zealand
<i>Indigenous Wild Animals (continued).</i>					
(5) <i>Snakes.</i>					
Snakes thrive most in warm moist places. They abound in India, and the bite of several of the Indian kinds is very deadly. In South Africa and Australia snakes, though less numerous than in India, are common, and some kinds very venomous. In the Canadian Dominion snakes are rare, and in New Zealand they are unknown . . .					
DOMESTICATED ANIMALS.					
Ass	—	—	—	—	—
Cat	—	—	—	—	—
Dog	—	—	—	—	—
Elephant (is used in India for the purposes of travelling, agriculture, hunting, and war. In Africa it is not now domesticated, though it was so in ancient times)	—	—	—	—	—
Poultry	—	—	—	—	—
Goat	—	—	—	—	—
Horse (the best breeds of horses in almost every country are crossed with the Arabian variety)	—	—	—	—	—
Ox	—	—	—	—	—
Ostrich (domesticated in Africa for its beautiful and valuable feathers)	—	—	—	—	—
Pig	—	—	—	—	—
Indian Lynx or Cheetah (used for hunting deer)	—	—	—	—	—
Otter (used for catching fish)	—	—	—	—	—
Rabbit	—	—	—	—	—
Sheep	—	—	—	—	—
None of the domesticated animals in Australia or New Zealand are indigenous except the Dingo, or native dog of Australia, which, however, is not so common in a domesticated state as other kinds of dogs introduced from Europe.					

APPENDIX B.

LESSER BRITISH POSSESSIONS.SECTION I.—*European Possessions.*

HELIGOLAND is a small island in the North Sea lying near to the coast of Germany and to the mouth of the river Elbe. It has two harbours, and is only valuable to England because it might be a useful naval station in time of war. The population is small, but the island is a favourite resort of the Germans during the summer.

GIBRALTAR, situated on the north side of the straits of the same name, is a steep rock, on which stands a very strong fortress guarded by powerful batteries. These command the bay, which is considered a very valuable naval station, as it is on the highway of commerce with the East. Gibraltar is connected with Spain by a low sandy isthmus. The trade of the place is small, and largely consists of English goods sold to traders who smuggle them into Spain. This possession has belonged to Great Britain since the year 1704.

MALTA lies in the Mediterranean Sea, about halfway between the southern extremity of Italy and the African coast. It is only fifteen miles long, its greatest breadth being about eight miles. Though small in size it is an important place, as it possesses a splendid and very safe harbour, strongly fortified, and is also a useful coaling station for steamers.

The climate in winter is mild, but at other seasons the island is occasionally swept by hot winds from the great African Desert, and then the weather is very oppressive. The imports and exports are various, and amount in value respectively to about eight million pounds. The oranges of Malta are famous for their excellence.

SECTION II.—*Asiatic Possessions.*

CYPRUS.—This large island lies near to the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea, and forms part of the Turkish empire. We may, however, consider it to be for the present a British possession, as the government of the country was handed over to us by the Turks in 1878. Three-fifths of the surface of the island are mountainous, the remainder consisting of plains, the soil of which is very fertile. The climate varies, the heat being great in summer in the plains, but moderate in the higher lands. In parts of Cyprus the rainfall is frequently scanty, and the crops at times suffer much from drought. Another occasional trouble is caused by the plagues of locusts, which devour almost all the vegetation they find in their path. The chief products are wheat, barley, cotton, silk, oil, wine, and salt. The country was once famous throughout the Mediterranean States for the valuable timber supplied by its splendid oak and walnut forests, and some of them are still left. The trees have, however, been recklessly cut down, and the extent of the woods has been much lessened, as no steps were taken to replant them. Under English rule, trees are again being widely planted, and among the

advantages expected from their growth are more temperate summers and an increased rainfall.

Had it not been for the tyranny and heavy taxes from which the people in former times cruelly suffered, Cyprus might truly have been a happy land, and already under British rule it is becoming much more prosperous.

ADEN is a seaport situated on the south coast of Arabia, and only a short distance from the entrance to the Red Sea. It lies on a peninsula and in the crater of an extinct volcano, the sides of which have been fortified so that the town could be easily defended. Moreover, it has a good harbour.

In the middle ages Aden was a great commercial city, but the discovery by Vasco-da-Gama of a waterway to India round the Cape of Good Hope turned the trade between the East and West into a new channel. The prosperity of Aden consequently declined, and it became a ruinous and almost deserted city. Now, however, that the opening of the Suez Canal has revived the former traffic through the Red Sea, Aden is again thriving, and already has a large mixed population, among whom are Arabs and natives of Africa, India, and Europe.

PERIM is a bleak rocky little island in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, at the entrance to the Red Sea. The British Government recently took possession of this islet in order that it might not fall into the hands of any other Power and become troublesome in times of war. The island is now a coaling station.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS is the name of the collective British possessions in the Malay Peninsula and

the Straits of Malacca. They comprise Singapore, an island only separated from the southern extremity of the peninsula by a narrow strait. Further north on the west coast of the peninsula is the province of Malacca; still further north on the same coast is the province of Wellesley, and opposite to it the adjacent island of Penang.

Singapore is by far the most important of the Straits Settlements. Situated on the water-way from China to the West, and, possessing two harbours, the settlement is well placed as a centre of trade with the Malay Peninsula and the neighbouring archipelago. Its commerce is consequently large and daily increasing. The population is now 155,000, of whom the great majority are Chinese. Tigers are numerous in the island, and so bold that it has been estimated that nearly three hundred persons are killed by them every year.

Malacca is a district only in part cultivated, and as it possesses no place in which vessels can lie except an open roadstead, its commerce is small.

Penang, also sometimes called 'Prince of Wales Island,' is a very picturesque settlement, the surface of which is hilly and beautifully wooded. Its length is only about thirteen miles, its breadth nowhere exceeding ten miles. The capital, also called Penang, has an excellent harbour. For a time under British rule, the commerce of the settlement rapidly increased, but its further growth has been checked by the rival advantages of Singapore.

Wellesley Province, like that of Malacca, is a place of secondary importance.

All the Straits Settlements are governed by officers appointed by the British Government.

HONG-KONG is a small mountainous and picturesque island on the south-west coast of China, at the mouth of the Canton River, and only separated from the mainland by a narrow strait. It possesses a spacious harbour. The commerce of the settlement is much less than that of several of the other ports of China, but it is the headquarters of the English banks and of many European merchants carrying on the trade with the mainland, and these, with their managers and clerks and the British garrison, form a considerable community. The great majority of the population are, however, Chinese. The island is chiefly valuable as a military and naval station.

SECTION III.—*Possessions on the West Coast of Africa.*

SETTLEMENTS IN UPPER GUINEA.—The West Coast of Africa between the tenth degree N. lat. and the Gulf of Guinea is known as Upper Guinea. Here are several possessions of considerable importance as trading stations. This region for the most part consists of lowlands lying between the sea and the outer edge of the vast mass of table-lands which occupy almost the whole interior of the continent. At one or two points the hills approach the water's edge, but the shores are generally very level.

These lowlands are well watered by the heavy rains which fall at one season of the year, and by the rivers and smaller streams which descend from the interior plateau. Moreover, the soil is fertile, and with all these advantages the vegetation is luxuriant even to rankness.

Unfortunately the climate, though so favourable to crops of several kinds, is very hot and most unhealthy. The air is poisoned by pestilential vapours which rise from swamps on the borders of the sea and of the streams, and from the marshy ground under the forests of the mangrove-trees. One of the settlements is so unhealthy for Europeans that it has been called the 'White Man's Grave.'

In all these possessions the natives, who belong to the negro race, form the great majority of the population. Even they suffer, if not in health, in character, from the depressing climate. Here are found the dullest and the most superstitious and degraded of the negro tribes. The only Europeans are those engaged in carrying on the trade with the interior, and the persons employed in the service of the Government.

The chief imports are manufactured goods from Europe, while the exports consist of palm-oil, oil seeds, gold dust, cotton, and hides. Ivory was once also largely shipped from these settlements, but is now scarce, as the elephants have been almost all killed.

For many years the Guinea Settlements were also the chief centres of the infamous foreign slave trade. Soon after the discovery of America, it was found that the natives of that continent were either unable or unwilling to do the hard work necessary to develop its mineral and agricultural resources. As the negroes are capable of performing hard labour in hot climates, the plan was adopted of shipping them as slaves to America. The native chiefs readily assisted the Europeans to obtain the wretched victims, and not only sold their own subjects, but made war on one another to obtain

prisoners with whom to supply the demand. The wickedness of the trade was aggravated by the horrors of the voyage across the Atlantic. Numbers of the slaves died at sea in the stifling, overcrowded holds of the vessels, and from the want of sufficient food and water. The export of negroes at last was so great that African slave labour was introduced into South America, the southern colonies of North America, and the West India Islands. In the early part of this century the conscience of the British nation and of the people of the United States awoke to the iniquity of the traffic. The Governments of both these nations at the same time declared it unlawful for their subjects to carry on the slave trade. Other European nations afterwards followed their example, though the European traffic with America was nevertheless for some time secretly continued on a small scale.

The slaves settled in the United States, in all the West India Islands except Cuba, and also the slaves in many parts of South America, have now been set free, and the temptation to send others across the Atlantic Ocean has therefore ceased.

The chief British settlements in Upper Guinea, if taken in the order in which they lie as we proceed from the north south-eastwards along the coast, are those on the Sierra Leone Coast, the Gold Coast, the Slave Coast, and on the adjacent island of Lagos.

The most important of these settlements is Lagos, a small island only separated from the mainland by a network of lagoons. Formerly this island was a place where slaves were kept while awaiting shipment, and the population consisted only of a few wretched negroes.

Under British rule it has undergone a wonderful change. Notwithstanding a rather unhealthy climate, Europeans have been attracted in considerable numbers to the island by its commercial advantages. In the town there are several Christian churches and mission-houses, schools, a race-course, and an efficient native police force. It is the centre of a large trade which is carried on between the mainland and Europe, intercourse being maintained with England by a regular line of steamers.

GAMBIA SETTLEMENTS.—A few degrees north of Upper Guinea are some possessions consisting of trading stations situated on the banks of the Gambia River. The most important station is *Bathurst*, which occupies an island at the mouth of the river Bathurst.

SECTION IV.—*Possessions to which Africa is the nearest Continent.*

ASCENSION.—This is a small, mountainous, and lonely island, situated a few degrees south of the equator, almost in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. It was uninhabited until the year 1815, when it was occupied as a British station for vessels to call at and take in fresh stores. Turtle and birds' eggs are its only exports.

ST. HELENA is another small, mountainous, lonely island, lying about eight hundred miles south-east of Ascension. It will long be remembered in history as the island to which Napoleon was banished by the British Government after the battle of Waterloo, and where he ended his days. The commerce of the island is small, and consists chiefly in supplying vessels with stores. This

trade has decreased since the opening of the Suez Canal, as so many vessels now go eastwards by that way. The climate is very healthy, but the position of St. Helena is so solitary that the population is small, and has lately been diminishing.

MAURITIUS.—This island lies in the Indian Ocean about six hundred miles east of Madagascar. The area is 704 square miles, and the population about 320,000, of whom two-thirds are of Indian races. By far the most important export is sugar, though several other Eastern products are grown in the island.

RODRIGUEZ is a small mountainous island lying about three hundred miles east of Mauritius Settlement, of which it is a dependency. The island is a place of little importance.

SEYCHELLES ISLANDS.—These possessions lie in the centre of the Indian Ocean, and consist of a group of thirty isles, which are for the most part mountainous and clothed with luxuriant vegetation. They are remarkable for the coral-reefs which are growing fast around them, one of the banks having recently risen as much as thirty feet, and coral is now the material chiefly used in building the houses. The islands are productive and spices especially thrive well, but the cultivation of them suffers from the scarcity of labour. Timber, very suitable for shipbuilding, is also abundant. The population is about 12,000 in number.

SECTION V.—*Possessions in Oceania.*

The FIJI ISLANDS form an archipelago of about 250 islands and rocky islets, girt with coral-banks, and

situated about halfway between New Zealand and the equator. The surface is hilly and covered with beautiful vegetation. The climate is warm but healthy, and free from extremes of heat or cold. Possessed of a fertile soil and a sufficient rainfall, these lovely islands produce a great variety of the plants and trees most useful to mankind.

When the islands were first discovered, the natives were in a strange condition. They were intelligent, and were in many ways much more civilised than the natives of most of the other parts of the southern hemisphere, while in other ways they were mere savages. Cannibalism was very common. Strangers shipwrecked on their coasts were almost invariably killed and eaten. Native widows on the death of their husbands, and slaves on the death of their masters, suffered the same fate; and victims were slain in numbers merely to celebrate the building of a house or an exchange of friendly visits between different tribes. As many of the population have been converted to Christianity, these barbarous practices have now been almost stopped.

The natives of the Fiji Islands are strong and well able to work, but so lazy that the soil is badly cultivated, and the commerce of the archipelago is much less than it might be if the people were industrious. At one time the native population numbered about 140,000, but it was reduced by nearly a third by the spread of measles, an illness accidentally introduced into the islands by the visit of a foreign vessel. This fact is only one of the many which illustrate the fearful ravages caused by the diseases introduced by Europeans

into countries where they were before unknown, and where in time they often cease to be so deadly.

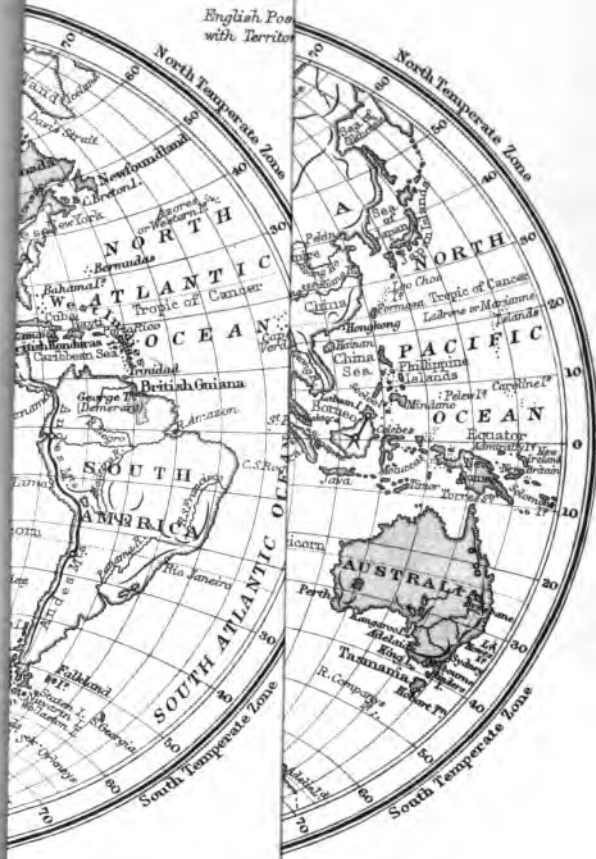
LABUAN is a small island on the north-west coast of Borneo. It is chiefly valuable to us because it possesses a good harbour, an abundant supply of fresh water, and also coal mines, so that it is in many ways a convenient place for vessels to call at.

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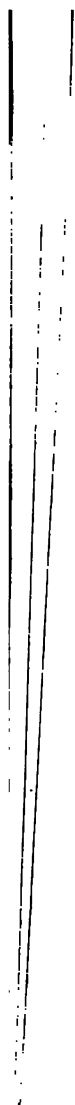
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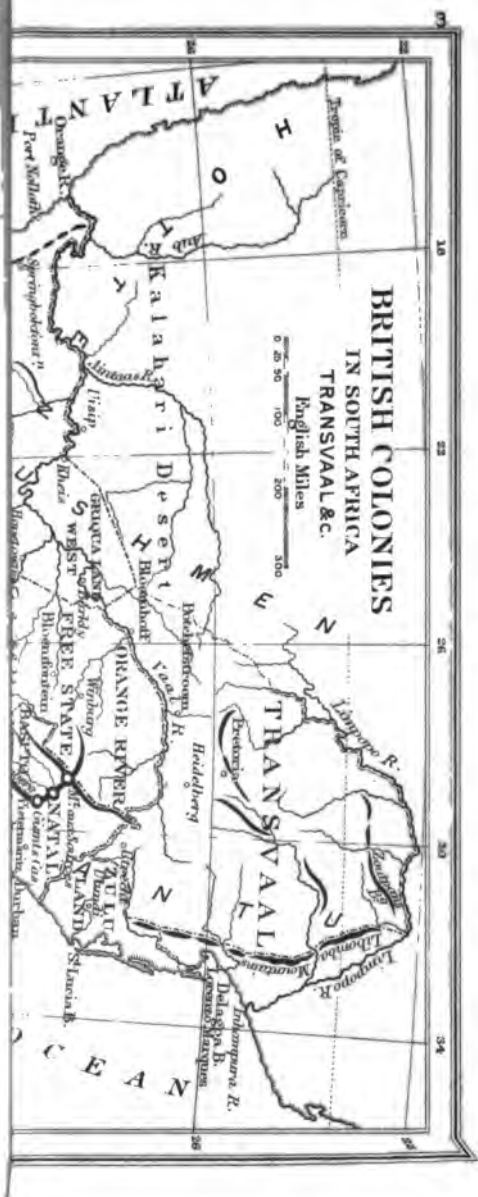
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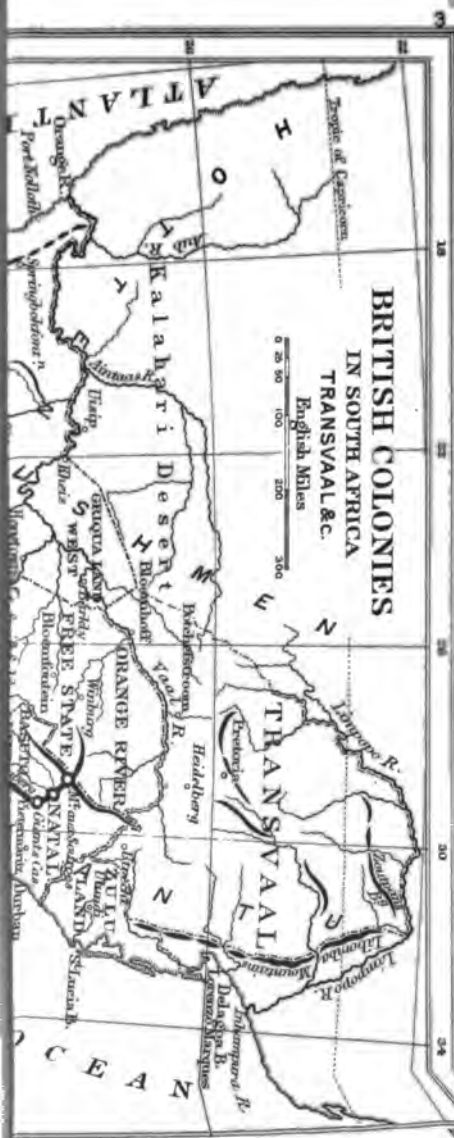


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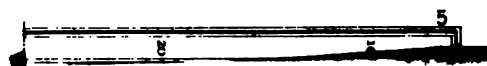
Figure 1 is a line graph showing the percentage of total sample area occupied by the 10 most abundant species in the benthic invertebrate community of the Chesapeake Bay from 1970 to 1990. The x-axis represents the year, with major ticks at 1970, 1975, 1980, 1985, and 1990. The y-axis represents the percentage of total sample area, with major ticks at 0, 50, 100, 200, and 300. The data points are connected by a line, showing a general upward trend. The percentage starts at approximately 50% in 1970, rises to about 100% by 1975, and continues to increase, reaching a peak of approximately 250% around 1985, before declining to about 150% by 1990.

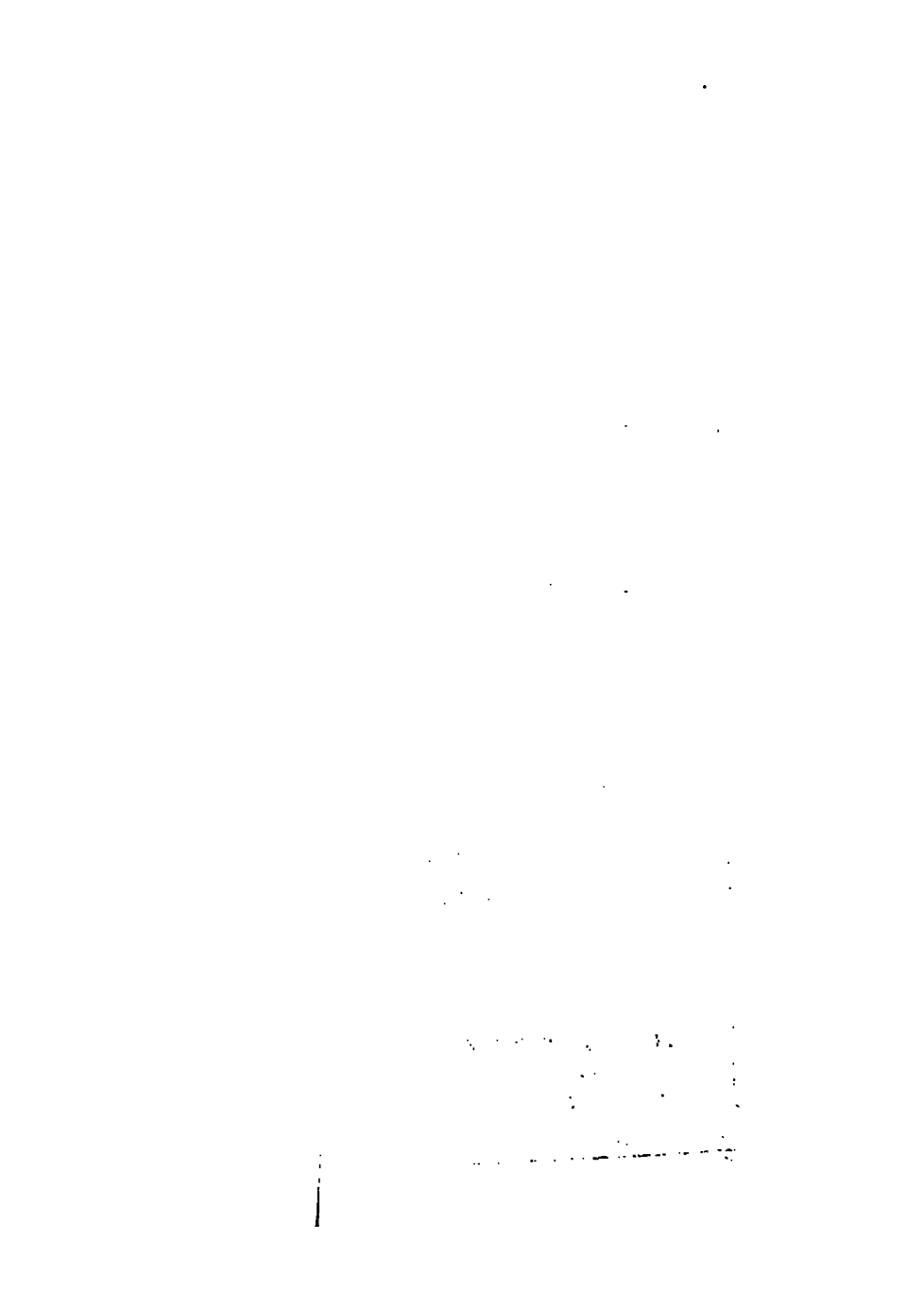


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